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EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

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FEDERAL FUNDS FOR EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

IF THE Congress approves the budget request of the Office of Education, approximately two million dollars will become available for a program of educational research. A large portion of this money will be used to support contracts and jointly financed co-operative research arrangements with colleges, universities, and state departments of education. Mr. J. R. Rackley, deputy commissioner of the United States Office of Education, discussed the program in an address to the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education at Chicago in February. According to Mr. Rackley, ten projects have been recommended in three major groupings. They are:

Conservation and development of human resources

1. Education of the mentally retarded
2. Development of special abilities of students (identification and development of unusual talent)
3. Educational aspects of juvenile delinquency
4. Retention and continuation of students (those who drop out of school before they have reached their maximum level of development, capable students who never enter college or who leave before finishing)

Staffing and housing the nation's schools

5. Staffing the nation's schools and colleges (getting and keeping qualified teachers, career motivation in the teaching field)

6. College buildings—present status and future needs

Education implications of expanding technology and economy

7. Implications of expanding technology for vocational education
8. Educational problems resulting from population mobility
9. Educational needs of low-income, rural families
10. Educational uses of television

The program was developed in this way: Specialists in the Office were asked to identify what they, in terms of their experience and associations with educator and lay citizens, considered to be the most important problems in education requiring research attention. These suggestions were then reviewed by the principal administrators in the Office and evaluated to determine which were most appropriate for co-operative research and which seemed most important in the national interest. Following that, the Advisory Committee [of prominent educators], in co-operation with other research specialists, identified the ten projects to be incorporated into the research program for 1957. Criteria used in making the selections were that priority should be given (1) to projects expected to have a demonstrable value to education within a reasonable length of time, (2) to projects concerning aspects of education where progress has been delayed because of wide gaps in knowledge, (3) to projects which will have significance for education throughout the whole country, and (4) to projects which are new, or

if not new, are ones which can be defended as a scientific check on conclusions which have come from previous research and educational practice.

From the point of view of educators the projects listed are unquestionably important. Solutions of the underlying problems are urgently needed. One wonders, however, how far two million dollars will go toward discovering the solutions. Compared with the multimillions that the government is now spending for research in other fields, and particularly for defense-related projects, the amount is a mere pittance. Moreover, it is almost negligible in comparison to the amounts spent by industry for research and development. It will be interesting to observe how this budget request is treated by the Congress. The appropriation should be made, and it should be only the beginning of a long-range program of support for educational research.

The major industries have forged ahead because, in part, of inventive genius but, in modern times, largely because they have supported long-range programs of research. The communications industry, for example, was at work on the basic problems of television years before commercial sets became available in the stores. In contrast, education has never had programs projected and funds to support them on anything like a comparable scale. Of course education is not regarded as industry; teaching is said to be an art. The work of superior individual teachers may indeed have some of the characteristics of an art, but, viewed as a whole, education in this country resembles an industry, with its annual expenditures of more than six billion dollars. It is proposed to invest two million dollars of federal money in research on certain educational problems. This figures out as .033 per cent, or one-third of one-tenth of one per cent. Fortunately some other money will be available—but all of it is little enough.

SUCCESSFUL PARENT CONFERENCES IN HIGH SCHOOLS

THE RELATIVE IMPORTANCE of theory and practice is an old issue in education. The *School Review* welcomes articles describ-

ing practices that schools have found useful or promising. We are aware that the majority of our articles lean toward the theoretical side or report research, and we regard the publication of such materials as our primary mission. Nevertheless, we believe theory and practice should go forward together.

Recently we received a description of what seems to us to be a useful practice. The author is R. P. Brimm, principal of Teachers College High School, Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa. He describes a program of parent conferences which has been developed by his staff. From an editorial point of view his description is a little short for a major article, and consequently we print it here as an example of desirable practices which have grown out of modern theory.

The letter C and a stereotyped notation on the report card that "Johnny is not working up to his ability" is a superficial attempt at reporting the progress of a boy or girl in school. Carefully filed away in each teacher's desk is a well-developed statement of the philosophy of the school, which stresses the importance of all phases of the child's life in school, but the only progress reported to the parent is in terms of an A in history and a C in geometry. Even in this selected area of reporting, no attempt is made to tell why the student is doing well in one subject or not so well in another. Most of the other so-called "important experiences" of our total curriculum are never mentioned to the parent. Our statement of philosophy says that there are other important experiences in school—but how can we convince the parents of their significance if we ourselves do not consider them important enough to report?

During the past decade there has been a widespread trend toward use of the parent-teacher conference to give a meaningful and complete report to the parents of elementary-school children. In some schools the conference has replaced the traditional report card, and in other cases the conference has been used to supplement the report card. One reason that the practice has been widely used in the elementary school is that the administrative organization lends itself to the device. The absence of a highly departmentalized organization places on one teacher the responsibility for a major portion of the activities in a given home room, and this one teacher is in an excellent position to dis-

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cuss any one child's total school program with the parent.

Some use has been made of the parent-teacher conference in the junior high school, but the senior high school has done little in this area. In the secondary school the parent would have to confer with many teachers to get the entire picture of the student's school life. The conscientious teacher who would like to report individually to the parents of each student with whom he works would find the number of conferences staggering. The home-room organization offers some solution to this problem. Some schools make the home-room teacher responsible for conferences with the parents of his home-room pupils, but usually the size of the group prohibits a systematic conference with all the parents.

For the past three years, Teachers College High School has been developing a program of parent-teacher-student conferences. Each teacher is designated as the adviser or counselor of a certain number of students and remains in that capacity until these individuals graduate. Twice each year, a day is devoted to conferences. On that day, classes are not held, and appointments are made with the parents to come to school and discuss the progress of their children. As the conferences are scheduled at about forty-five-minute intervals, it is impossible to complete them all in one day, and many are held outside of school time, often in the home.

In these conferences the teacher acts as a "clearing-house" for information concerning the child. He gathers information concerning the child from various sources about the school and passes it on to the parent. He also gathers information from the parent and sees that it goes to the appropriate teacher. Dust has been knocked off the cumulative folders, and parents have a look into the heretofore secret files. Standardized tests, vocational-interest inventories, and personality scales are studied. Report cards are interpreted, and many aspects of the student's school life are brought before the parent for the first time. Registration for the following year is conducted during the spring conference, when the student, parent, and teacher plan carefully for the student's future courses. Contacts are not restricted to the scheduled conferences. The parents have now discovered a teacher who knows what their child is doing in school, and much information, both from the school and from the home, is exchanged over the telephone, at P.T.A. meet-

ings, and in other situations.

This situation did not just happen. It has evolved from a long, slow process of in-service training. Much time has been spent in committees and faculty meetings in working out the details. The program is now functioning well, but there are still problems. While most of the teachers work hard at gathering information and interpreting it to the parents, a few drag their feet and do little more than is absolutely necessary. Although 90-95 per cent of the parents attend the scheduled conferences, there are a few who are always too busy to discuss their children's progress in school.

The "counselors" are classroom teachers, and many are without formal training in techniques of counseling. Some authorities would frown upon the practice of letting untrained persons hold interviews with parents and students, but it is obvious that not enough specialized counselors are available to get the total job done. If our school program is to be interpreted to the patrons and if every child's progress is to be properly reported, then every teacher should contribute to the program. The explanation, "We do not have teachers trained in personnel work," is merely an excuse for not doing the job. It would be more nearly correct to say that we do not have teachers experienced in holding planned interviews with parents and students. The lack of experience stems from the fact that few teachers have been given an opportunity to participate in such a program. An organized system of parent interviews will provide the opportunity for classroom teachers to gain experience in planned interviews and will give to all parents and students a valuable service now available only to the few so-called "problem" cases.

ARE WE GETTING OUR MONEY'S WORTH?

THE GROWING DEMAND for technical and skilled workers and actual or impending shortages in the supply are now causing concern in government circles, according to a "Special Report" in *U.S. News and World Report* for February 24, 1956. These shortages are in addition to the well-known inadequate supply of scientists, engineers, and science teachers. Government leaders "were also told that a great many of the young people now coming out of the public schools have too little ability or education to become skilled workers, to satisfy the growing

need." Accompanying the article is a pictograph which presents data on "What Army Tests Show about the I.Q. of American Youths." Of special interest is the distribution of failures by geographic regions. The data, here rearranged into tabular form, are shown in Table 1.

The caption of the pictograph reminds one of the old joke about the mother who reported that her son had "failed his I.Q.

TABLE 1

PER CENT OF YOUTHS EXAMINED
WHO FAILED ARMED FORCES
QUALIFICATION TEST (JULY,
1952—JUNE, 1954)

Region	Per Cent Failing
Midwest.....	4.6
Far West.....	6.0
New England.....	6.6
Middle Atlantic.....	8.0
Southwest.....	16.4
Southeast.....	27.9
U.S. total.....	11.0

test." It seems very unlikely that the learning ability of the youth population is geographically distributed in this way. The test is described as covering "an elementary knowledge of the English language, arithmetic, and the ability to solve simple problems." The "minimum passing score" is 10 points out of a possible 100. The test is obviously an achievement test. In fact, the pictograph states that one in nine youths examined are "too illiterate for the armed forces." It is unfortunate that the editors of the *U.S. News and World Report* apparently were not aware of the distinction between the "I.Q." and achievement, or the lack of it implied by the term "illiteracy." Although another caption would have been preferable for the pictograph, this is a trivial point. The illiteracy revealed is, however, not a trivial matter. The article states that these youths "are considered not suitable for military duty and, by implication, not able to learn much in a civilian job either."

The "Special Report" also presents, in graphic form, data that are here presented in Table 2. From this it is concluded that "large numbers of young men are coming

out of school lacking native ability or education to fit them to become highly trained workers."

When these findings are compared to socioeconomic data, such as the per pupil expenditures for education by the states, the existence of a positive measure of correlation between achievement and such factors is obvious. Last month the *School Review* published an article by Professor Benjamin Bloom based on the results of another test (Tests of General Educational Development), which presents impressive evidence of this sort, without, however, identifying particular states or regions.

Some critics of the schools try to use data like those published in *U.S. News and World Report* to support their opinion that the schools are "failing." They hasten to de-

TABLE 2

PER CENT OF YOUTHS TAKEN FOR
SERVICE WHO WERE FOUND
UNSUITABLE FOR ADVANCED
TRAINING (JULY, 1952—JUNE,
1954)

Region	Per Cent Unsuitable
Far West.....	23.1
Midwest.....	25.8
New England.....	26.1
Middle Atlantic.....	35.3
Southwest.....	44.1
Southeast.....	52.7
U.S. total.....	33.3

plore the situation, blame the schools, and suggest remedies. Often these critics complain that the public is not getting its money's worth out of the taxes levied for education. The fact is that Professor Bloom's data tend to show the opposite. In regions where relatively more money is spent, educational facilities tend to be better, and the achievement of the youth population as a whole is also better.

Local school officials, seeking to secure approval for ever larger budgets, are likely to allow too much attention to be devoted to comparisons between this year's budget and last year's, between the local budget and that of neighboring communities. These comparisons cannot be ignored, but it

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would also be useful, in many instances, to emphasize that nation-wide testing programs support the really obvious conclusion that good achievement by students as a group (but not necessarily as individuals) depends upon the quality of the educational services provided. In general, these are related to expenditures for education. With education, like everything else, you get what you pay for.

WHY TEACHING IS ATTRACTIVE

SIXTEEN FACTORS that make teaching attractive are listed and briefly described in the February issue of *Midland Schools*, the official publication of the Iowa State Education Association. The list was compiled by Professor Guy Wagner, director of the curriculum laboratory at Iowa State Teachers College, who asked his students to list their personal reasons for entering teaching. Now that the time for renewing contracts is at hand, any teacher who is "fed up" with teaching and contemplates leaving the profession would do well to think about these factors.

Enjoyment.—Teaching can be fun. Certain teachers give evidence that they enjoy teaching.

Inner satisfaction.—There are inner satisfactions for those who like to work with people.

Service motive.—There are many opportunities for service—to be of help to others. Teaching affords ideal situations for building character and teaching citizenship. Teachers can help underprivileged children, develop sportsmanship, build moral standards.

Personal interests.—There are opportunities to continue personal interests developed in high school: athletics, public speaking, dramatics, typing, history, science, industrial arts, and working with children.

Personal growth.—Teaching affords many opportunities for continuing personal growth.

Human relations.—One of life's greatest adventures is that of exploring the field of human relations.

Challenge.—Teaching is a constant challenge to one's talents and ideals.

Prestige.—There is a growing prestige for teachers, due to increased public understanding of the importance of education, higher certification requirements, and mounting need for qualified teachers.

Security.—Teaching offers such security features as employment during depressions, job insurance for married women, annuity and retirement programs, and tenure.

Standards of living.—In most states teachers are able to have comparatively good living standards. Although they will never have large incomes, unless they are able to capitalize on other professional activities such as writing books, nevertheless teaching incomes are becoming increasingly better. Furthermore, one's living standards are dependent as much on social affiliations and wise choice of expenditures as they are upon financial income.

Travel.—Teachers are fortunate in travel opportunities because they have relatively long vacation periods, and employment opportunities are available throughout the United States. Opportunities for teaching in foreign lands are growing.

Variety.—Teaching offers a wide variety of experiences. For qualified, alert teachers there should be no such thing as monotonous routine.

Quality of associates.—Teaching provides opportunities for associations with people who are community-minded, have good minds, have intellectual curiosity, and are concerned about continuous personal growth. One who enters the teaching field is likely to be constantly challenged by persons whose life-goals are good and who daily find interest in sharing significant thinking with others.

Foundation for specialization.—Teaching builds a good background for certain other fields of specialization such as nursing, script-writing, child welfare, homemaking, social work, and personnel work.

Temperament.—Teaching is ideally suited to certain types of individuals—those who have the temperament for teaching. The desirable temperament is likely to include such factors as interest in people, moderate patience, reasonable tolerance, integrity, kindness, speaking ability, and organizational abilities.

Advancement.—Teaching affords substantial opportunities for advancement. Most schools are adopting single salary schedules so that a teacher with experience and training may advance steadily in the ranks of teaching per se. Other advancement opportunities include positions as county supervisor, county superintendent, elementary-school principal, high-school principal, department chairman, curriculum director, city supervisor, superintendent, director of audio-visual education, state and federal education positions, college teaching, di-

rector of guidance and personnel, school psychologist, remedial-reading teacher, speech correctionist, supervisor of special fields such as art, music, and reaction. Opportunities for positions of importance in industry are increasing rapidly. In addition, teachers may be interested in moving into positions connected with the work of youth groups. For those who will be in the armed services, a background of teacher preparation often leads to desirable appointments.

MAURICE L. HARTUNG

SUMMER CONFERENCES AND WORKSHOPS AT THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

Conference on Reading

The Nineteenth Annual Reading Conference will be held from Tuesday, June 26, to Friday, June 29, 1956. The theme will be "Developing Permanent Interest in Reading." The general sessions of the conference will be concerned with aspects of the theme of interest to all participants.

Sectional meetings will be devoted to specific applications of the principles which evolve at the general sessions. Sectional meetings are planned for all school levels, from kindergarten through junior college, and a special section will be provided for administrators and supervisors. The complete program of the secondary-school and junior-college sections will be carried in the May issue of the *School Review*.

The conference is open without fee to students registered for the summer quarter. For all others the fee will be \$1.25 per session, \$2.50 per day, or \$8.00 for the entire conference. Copies of the program and information on securing rooms may be obtained from Mrs. Helen M. Robinson, University of Chicago, Chicago 37.

Conference on Guidance and Personnel

The Twentieth Annual Guidance and Personnel Conference will be held on Thursday and Friday, June 28 and 29. The general topic of the conference will be "The Organization and Administration of Guidance and Personnel Services in Educational Institutions." After the first general session, each of three groups will study one of the following subtopics: (1) organization and ad-

ministration of guidance and personnel services in elementary schools, (2) organization and administration of guidance and personnel services in secondary schools, and (3) organization and administration of guidance and personnel services in higher education.

Questions and requests for the complete program may be directed to Robert C. Woellner, University of Chicago.

Conference on Problems of the Principalship

The Midwest Administration Center and the Department of Education of the University of Chicago will sponsor a conference on July 9-11 dealing with problems of the principalship. The conference is designed for elementary- and secondary-school principals and for key teachers on school staffs but should also prove of value to superintendents, board members, and others interested in effective school administration.

Detailed information may be obtained from H. T. James, Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago 37, Illinois.

Workshop in Reading

A reading workshop is scheduled to begin on July 2 and continue through July 27. Detailed information about this workshop was presented in the March number of the *School Review*.

Workshop in Language Arts in the Elementary School

A workshop in language arts in the elementary school will be held from July 30 through August 17. The workshop is open to classroom teachers, supervisors, and administrators. It will consider methods and materials (1) for effecting closer interrelationships among the language arts of reading, writing, speaking, and listening; (2) for integrating language arts with the entire school curriculum; (3) for dealing with a wide range of pupil abilities; and (4) for evaluating pupil progress. Members of the workshop will work on curriculum and instructional problems relevant to their own situations.

Registration in the workshop is for one course (three and one-third semester hours) and is limited to twenty-five students. Application forms for admission and further information may be obtained from Miss Mildred C. Letton, Department of Education, University of Chicago.

Workshop in Problems of Teaching Poetry, Fiction, Drama, and Intellectual Works in Secondary School

A workshop in problems of teaching poetry and other forms of literature in the secondary school will be held from June 25 to July 27. The class work will consist in a close study of specific texts followed by discussions centered on special problems brought by the members of the class. The work may be taken for credit (one course or three and a third semester hours).

Complete information may be obtained from the Department of English, University of Chicago.

Human Relations Workshop

The Fifth Midwest Workshop in Community Home Relations will be conducted on the campus of the University of Chicago from June 23 to July 7, 1956. The aims of the workshop are to encourage self-understanding; to develop concepts and skills for improving group procedures in classroom, conference, or meeting; to create better human relations within a school or other public or private institution; to improve human relations between the school and other community groups.

An experimental feature of this workshop will be a three-hour, group-training period in the mornings. These meetings are process-oriented; that is, individual members are encouraged to look at what is happening within the group and between the various members so that they become increasingly aware of their own feelings and behavior, as well as the feelings and behavior of others. It is a laboratory situation in that members may, with their new insights, experiment with different kinds of behavior within the group.

The afternoon programs will be de-

veloped from a survey of the interests of delegates, which will be made some weeks in advance of the workshop. Skill-training, interviewing, making surveys, role-playing, lectures, and tours will be offered, from which the delegates will select those areas in which they are particularly interested.

For further information write to Morris L. Haimowitz, Human Relations Center, University of Chicago, Chicago 37, Illinois.

Workshop on Family-Life Education

A workshop on Family-Life Education and Its Evaluation will be held on July 9-27. Nelson N. Foote, director of the Family Study Center, will lead the workshop, with the help of Eugene Litwak, assistant director of the center, and a staff of eight experienced group leaders.

The workshop will be concerned with general problems, both theoretical and practical, in the approach to family-life education in terms of interpersonal competence. It will also provide opportunities for learning the techniques developed by the staff of the Family Study Center for increasing competence in family living. By bringing together teachers in schools and colleges and persons from family agencies which engage in community programs, the workshop will enrich both theory and practice through exchange of experience. Teachers from high schools and colleges, social workers, counselors, parent educators, and group workers in the field of the family are eligible to attend. Participants will have available for study a manual on the "Development and Assessment of Interpersonal Competence," as well as original documents and research reports on studies of sociability, evaluation of competence, and child development.

The workshop offers credit to the amount of one course (three quarter hours), but non-credit students may also register. Facilities for accommodations (except for married couples) will be provided at International House on the campus.

For further information write Mrs. Winifred L. O'Donnell, secretary of the Family Study Center, University of Chicago, 5757 Drexel Avenue, Chicago 37, Illinois.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF LITERATURE FOR ADOLESCENTS

RICHARD S. ALM

University of Hawaii



THE WORLD of books for the teen-ager is a rapidly expanding one. With the availability of countless books written for young readers and with the changed point of view of teachers toward the use of such books, the adolescent of today reads a far different type of fare from that served the adolescent of a few decades ago. Once the subject matter of a literature course in high school consisted of the most famous and revered of English and American literary works. Today the literature program includes some of these classics but is giving increasing attention to the emerging body of literature for adolescents.

Although adolescence has been studied as a separate area in psychology and education since about 1900 and many studies have been concerned with the reading of adolescents, there is as yet no major historical study of that imaginative literature which is created for, and read primarily by, adolescents. Instead, the term "children's literature" has been used to embrace all literature written for individuals younger than adults. The term is a misleading one today, however, since a close examination of what has been labeled "children's literature" will reveal that much of it has been intended for, and has been read widely by, adolescents. The line between the two types of literature is, of course, very tenuous. Children read books written primarily for adolescents, just as the latter turn, as a very natural step in the development of their reading interests, to adult novels and nonfiction.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF BOOKS FOR CHILDREN

Perhaps to understand the phenomenon of what Margaret A. Edwards calls "the rise of teen-age reading" (3), one must note first

the historical background of children's books. This history is a long and colorful one. Books have been read to, or read by, children as long as books have been made, but for several centuries no one made any special effort to write books for them. Though children found pleasure in such stories as those in chapbooks sold by the itinerant peddlers of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, their reading generally consisted of adult works which they were expected to understand, if not to enjoy. Their books were meant either to preach to, or to teach, young minds. A popular book of the late seventeenth century is a good example of the kind of writing for children that flourished in Puritan England: *A Token for Children: being an Exact Account of the Conversion, Holy and Exemplary Lives, and Joyful Deaths of several young Children. To which is now added, Prayers and Graces, fitted for the use of little Children* (1: 14-15).

Books for children were so grim that Charles Perrault's publication of a collection of fairy tales in France at the end of the seventeenth century was a sunburst on the gray Puritan world. French children read and loved the stories, as did English children when a translation, *Tales of Mother Goose*, was printed in England in 1729. A printer of the day, John Newbery, who had observed the ready market for such stories, was blessed with a sensitivity to the literary needs of children and began printing books for them. The first novel written expressly for children, *The History of Little Goody Two Shoes*, was printed by Newbery in 1765 (1: 18). It is largely to his credit that books for children finally came into their own.

Rousseau, the French contemporary of Newbery, also stressed the need for a new

look at children and a literature for them. His work, especially *Émile*, was an important influence in the latter half of the eighteenth century. Unfortunately a didacticism—intellectual and moralistic—followed in the wake of Rousseau, and the fun in reading that children had begun to have was lost again for several generations.

In America, literature for children was influenced first by English, and later by French, writers. With the Puritans of New England dominating the culture of the New World, reading for children consisted chiefly of edifying and spiritually uplifting messages. Although the spread of Rousseau's ideas led to a new concept of childhood, the effect on children's literature in America, too, was merely to shift emphasis from religious to moralistic learning. During the next century children's books were written to preach or to teach, and, though the writers became more skilful in writing for a younger audience, they still did not view reading as a potentially gay or happy experience for children.

A fascinating study of literature for children in early America by Monica Kiefer (7) outlines from stories of the day a picture of the child and his changing status in that period. Kiefer notes that the child's position shifted from one of neglect by the adult world of the early 1700's to one of greater prominence as a person in his own right by 1835.

Some imaginative literature for children—myths and fairy tales—found its way from Europe to America, but no significant children's book appeared in this country until the publication in 1868 of Louisa May Alcott's *Little Women*. May Hill Arbuthnot has hailed its publication as epoch-making (1: 24).

In the era to follow, the first of the American classics for children were written. Of these, the best known today are Mark Twain's *The Adventures of Tom Sawyer* and *The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn*. Even though such books belong to readers of all ages, surely they must be thought of as the first of the great novels for the adolescent.

All reading studies of recent years show that they still rank high among the favorites of teen-age readers.

These books set the stage for a new kind of literature, one that dealt with children and young people as an audience which deserved notice. Since then, the field has expanded so greatly that in the twentieth century it has gained a stature never before equaled in America or in any other country. Paul Hazard, in writing about children's literature all over the world, proclaimed a spirit in America that overwhelmed him:

Among the many sentiments that have stood the test of time and mingling of races, the men on the "Mayflower" took over with them the respect and love for childhood, and this respect and love have borne fruit in the new soil. Do many people know how many books are printed in the United States, for the use of children? In 1919, twelve million; in 1925, twenty-five million, two hundred thousand; in 1927, thirty-one million. In 1919 appeared four hundred and thirty-three new works intended for young people; in 1929, nine hundred and thirty-one. Every bookshop of importance has a juvenile department with its own employees and organization that functions alongside the large one [6:87].

The figures of twenty-five years ago which thrilled Hazard are much larger now. *Publishers' Weekly* (9) reports that 1,193 new books for young readers and 149 new editions of older titles were published in 1954.

FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO DEVELOPMENT OF CHILDREN'S LITERATURE

Many groups and many factors have accounted for the increased attention paid to the child and to literature for him in America. A recent history emphasizes the contributions of the twentieth century toward shaping this attitude and, in referring to children's books, calls the period 1920-50 "The Golden Age" (8: 66). This book hails the first White House Conference on Children and Youth, convened in 1909 by President Theodore Roosevelt, as the event which first and officially centered the atten-

tion of the entire country on children and their needs.

Public libraries.—One important aspect of the change in the role of the child in America has been the special treatment accorded him by public libraries. In the middle 1800's the expansion of public education led to a demand for free public libraries. Very early in their history the libraries created separate departments and facilities for children. In speaking before the International Library Congress in Brussels in 1910, Farr, the librarian of the Cardiff, Wales, Public Libraries, declared: "The development of library work with children during recent years . . . [has been] one of the most striking features of modern library progress both in Great Britain and America" (5: 2). Farr insisted that the children's department be one of the chief divisions of the library:

It [work with children] is a factor in social and economic progress, which will have the most far-reaching results. The child of today is the citizen of tomorrow. It depends largely upon us whether he is to become a responsible and enlightened citizen, or whether he is to be ignorant and irresponsible (5: 12).

Many years later Paul Hazard credited the United States with a service to children that gave prestige both to books and to the youngsters who read them:

Here is an innovation that does honor to the sensibility of a people, and it is an American innovation: the libraries reserved for children. Those light and gay rooms, decorated with flowers and suitable furniture; those rooms where children feel perfectly at ease, free to come and go; to hunt for a book in the catalogue, to find it on the shelves, to carry it to their armchair, and to plunge into the reading of it. They are better than a drawing-room or a club. They are a home (5: 88).

Librarians were probably the first group to recognize that adolescents, too, need particular consideration, that their reading needs are neither those of children nor those of adults. A few librarians early attempted to set up special collections and departments for young people, but Scoggin declares that not until 1919 when the New York Public

Library appointed a "superintendent of work with schools" did this program in America gain any real momentum (10). In 1925 the first of many rooms allocated exclusively to library materials for adolescents was opened—the Robert Louis Stevenson Room of the Cleveland (Ohio) Public Library. In the years following, the number of rooms and special branches with services for young readers grew until in 1947 there were about 160 youth rooms in the public libraries of the country (4). The number of librarians especially trained for this work has also grown. In 1930 they were numerous enough to form the Young People's Reading Round Table of the American Library Association. In 1941 this group became a part of the Division of Libraries for Children and Young People.

Young-adult rooms in libraries have received even greater attention in recent years. The modern architecture and the clublike atmosphere of the James H. Skinner Memorial Room in the St. Paul (Minnesota) Public Library have drawn countless teen-age patrons as well as many children and adult observers. In Sacramento, California, a large and very beautiful house has been transformed into a comfortable library for the young people of that city. The Nathan Straus Branch Library in Manhattan and the Brownsville Children's Branch Library in Brooklyn are buildings entirely devoted to young patrons. The need for special attention to young people is apparent when one realizes that, according to various studies, between 51 and 65 per cent of users of the public library are under the age of twenty-one (11).

Book reviews in newspapers and magazines.—Newspapers and magazines, too, early recognized the growing interest in children's books and began carrying book news and reviews. In 1918 the *Bookman* introduced as a major feature criticism of books for children by Anne Carroll Moore. Literary criticism of this type gained real impetus in the twenties with the addition of a weekly page of reviews by Miss Moore in the *New York Herald Tribune's Books* and the

setting-up later of similar sections in the *New York Times Book Review* and the *Saturday Review*. A quarterly dealing exclusively with books and reading for the young, the *Horn Book Magazine*, began publication in 1924 under the editorship of Bertha E. Mahoney and still represents today, under the editorship of Jennie D. Lindquist, devoted leadership and inspiration for those who work with books and children.

Of great significance, too, has been the notice given by the *English Journal* to the development of literature for adolescents. This journal, the High School Organ of the National Council of Teachers of English, has long had a regular section for reviews of new books, but only recently, in January of 1951, was the section "Leisure Reading" added to the "Teaching Materials" department. It first included brief reviews by classroom teachers of books written for adolescent readers. To develop a consistent critical approach to the reviews and to add prestige to the section, G. Robert Carlsen, University of Texas, was later named editor of the section; his first reviews appeared in March, 1954.

A second innovation by the *English Journal* has been the publication annually in the September issue of a lead article dealing with literature for adolescents. The articles which have appeared thus far are "The Novel for the Adolescent" by Dwight L. Burton, 1951; "How Do I Love Thee?" by Margaret Edwards, 1952; "To Sail beyond the Sunset" by G. Robert Carlsen, 1953; "Worthy Westerns" by John T. Frederick, 1954; and "The Glitter and the Gold" by Richard S. Alm, 1955. In his article Burton discusses the characteristics of the novel for the adolescent and, probably for the first time anywhere in print, describes the body of literature for the adolescent as one that demands serious study and consideration both by teachers and by writers (2).

Publishers' role.—Publishers also gave attention to the new market by establishing editorships to promote the writing and publication of children's books. In 1919 the Macmillan Company set up a children's-

book department, and, in the years since, most major publishers have followed suit. The Children's Book Council, the membership of which is limited to publishers with children's-book departments, now has more than sixty members.

Book Week, book fairs, and book awards.—Two other major developments which have attracted the notice of the general public as well as of children and adolescents to books for young readers are special children's book events and annual book awards.

Children's Book Week was suggested first in the years 1913-15 by Franklin K. Mathiews, chief librarian of the Boy Scouts, but it was not really established until 1919 when the American Booksellers Association, of which Frederic G. Melcher was then chairman, organized a committee to plan a November Book Week, an event which has been celebrated annually ever since. Children's Book Week activities were directed first by the National Association of Book Publishers and later by the R. R. Bowker Company, owners of *Library Journal* and *Publishers' Weekly*. But in 1945 the Bowker Company found Book Week too large to handle, and the Children's Book Council was established as a nonprofit organization to serve as national headquarters for Book Week. The *Council Calendar* was created as a quarterly publication for individuals, schools, libraries, and other groups interested in children's books. Another project of the Council has been the holding, in co-operation with the *New York Times* and the American Museum of Natural History, of an annual book fair. The first fair, held in 1947, has served as a model for similar children's book fairs all over the country.

Although Children's Book Week in November each year is the most important literary event in terms of books for children and young people, there are today other book celebrations which give special attention to the younger-than-adult readers. In 1937 the *New York Herald Tribune* inaugurated the annual Children's Spring Book Festival to stimulate the spring sale of books for young people and to honor the authors of

the best spring books for each of three age ranges: 4-8, 8-12, and 12-16. The 1955 winners were, respectively, *Frog Went a-Courtin'* retold by John Langstaff and illustrated by Feodor Rojankovsky (Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1955); *Crystal Mountain* by Belle Dorman Rugh (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1955); and *The Buffalo Trace* by Virginia S. Eifert (Dodd, Mead & Co., 1955).

The other important movement in arousing public interest in young readers has been the establishment of various awards for outstanding books. In 1921 Frederic G. Melcher offered to present, under the auspices of the American Library Association, a medal to be awarded annually to the author of the outstanding juvenile book for the year. This award, named for John Newbery, the printer who first devoted his energies to providing books for children, was given first to Hendrik Willem Van Loon for *The Story of Mankind* (Boni & Liveright, 1922). The 1955 winner was *Wheel on the School* by Meindert De Jong (Harper & Bros., 1954). The Caldecott Medal for the year's outstanding illustrations of a children's book, named for one of the great illustrators of the nineteenth century, was established in 1937 by Melcher and has been presented annually since. In 1955 the award went to Marcia Brown for her illustrations of *Cinderella* (Charles Scribner's Sons, 1954).

A number of other awards have gained fame both for the authors honored and for the fields of children's literature and literature for adolescents. For example, the Children's Book Award of the Child Study Association was established in 1945. The winner in 1954 was Mary Stolz for her novel *In a Mirror* (Harper & Bros., 1953). The eleventh award, in 1955, went to two writers: Jonreed Lauritzen for *The Ordeal of the Young Hunter* (Little, Brown & Co., 1954) and William Corbin for *High Road Home* (Coward-McCann, 1954). An award established in 1954 by the Children's Library Association of the American Library Association, the Laura Ingalls Wilder Award, will surely bring distinction to those named in future years. The first winner was

Laura Ingalls Wilder herself. Every fifth year it will be presented to an author whose body of works has made a great contribution to children's literature.

Book clubs.—A stimulus to the actual reading of books by young people has been the rise of book clubs for them in America. The oldest of these is the Junior Literary Guild, modeled after the Literary Guild of America. It was organized in 1929 to enable young readers to secure more books of high quality for little money. Each month four books are selected for each of four different groups: for 6-8 years, boys and girls; for 9-11 years, boys and girls; for 12-16, boys; for 12-16, girls. The books are also widely purchased for use in libraries and classrooms.

The Teen Age Book Club, established about ten years ago by the Scholastic Corporation, is one in which schools set up chapters, and members order paperback editions of classic and contemporary works, both adult and juvenile. For each purchase of four titles the member receives a bonus title at the end of the school term. The books offered are selected by a panel of outstanding teachers and librarians: Max J. Herzberg, Margaret Scoggin, Mark A. Neville, E. Louise Noyes, and Richard J. Hurley. There are more than ten thousand school clubs today with a membership of about one-half million students.

The Young Readers of America Club, sponsored by the Book-of-the-Month Club, involves a plan whereby the members receive each month one of the Landmark books, a historical and biographical series published by Random House. The books are written specifically for older children and adolescents by such well-known literary figures as Walter VanTilburg Clark, Quentin Reynolds, C. S. Forester, Vincent Sheean, Stewart Holbrook, and John Mason Brown.

Book lists.—A number of lists of books for the adolescent have proved helpful in acquainting teachers and young readers with such books. Widely used are the National Council of Teachers of English book lists: *Your Reading*, for the junior high

school, and *Books for You*, for the senior high school. These lists are revised every three or four years. A new and valuable list published by the American Library Association is *Patterns in Reading* by Jean Roos. Many others are prepared by local groups for more limited distribution and for more frequent publication. An example is *Books for the Teen Age*, prepared annually by the New York Public Library.

Writers.—In tracing the development of literature for adolescents, one turns naturally to the books themselves. The field has become important to the teen-ager of today because writers have recognized this audience and have written specifically for it. Not all books written for the adolescent reader are great or even significant. But a considerable number of writers, such as the following, are making worthy contributions to the reading lives of young people: Paul Annixter, Margaret Bell, Marguerite Harmon Bro, Betty Cavanna, Maureen Daly, Anne Emery, H. Gregor Felsen, Doris Gates, Elizabeth Janet Gray, Robert Heinlein, Mina Lewiton, Armstrong Sperry, Mary Stolz, John Tunis, and Phyllis Whitney.

CONCLUDING COMMENT

Thus, from many sources, literature for the adolescent has found champions. Special courses for the preparation of high-school English teachers have dealt in part or wholly with the subject. Books, such as Amelia Munson's *An Ample Field* (American Library Association, 1950), have highlighted certain aspects of it. Libraries, publishers, book-review sections, and the *English Journal*—all have contributed to its development, too. Last, and most important of all, writers have come to accept adolescents as a worthy audience for a body of imaginative

literature all their own. Though the adolescent will read adult books for some of his choices, he has today available to himself a field of literature rich with the works of talented, thoughtful writers.

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TRENDS IN HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATION REQUIREMENTS AT THE STATE LEVEL

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A COMPARISON of high-school graduation requirements at the state level now and approximately twenty-five years ago, as reported in the National Survey of Secondary Education,¹ reveals a few notable differences or trends.

1. In 1932 many states were still permitting their high-school students to graduate with 15 units of credit. Now, only 3 states allow less than 16 units computed for Grades IX-XII.

2. Then, in 14 states there were no requirements at the state level except possibly the stipulation that college-preparatory students take the courses prescribed by their state universities for college entrance. Now, only 5 states fail to specify particular units of subject matter to be covered by all pupils.

3. In those 34 states that then had subject specifications for high-school graduates, pupils today have an opportunity for more electives than they did twenty-five years ago.

4. Over the past twenty-five years, states have tended to increase their emphasis upon work in the fields of social studies and health and physical education.

5. On the other hand, during this same period a number of states have reduced or eliminated their unit requirements in other subjects. Requirements in mathematics and in science have been reduced or eliminated in several states. Foreign language, then required in 3 states, has been eliminated alto-

gether as a requirement for *all* graduates. And finally, more than twice as many states have reduced their requirement in English from 4 years to 3 years than have increased it from 3 to 4.

WHAT THE "TYPICAL" STATE REQUIRES

If yours is that hypothetical "typical" state, it will require that all boys and girls graduating from high school shall complete, in their last four years, 3 or 4 units of English and 1, 2, or 3 units of social studies. The chances are equal that your state will require a year of science and a year of mathematics or that it will require no science or mathematics. Almost invariably, if it does not require one of these two subjects, it will not require the other.

Your state, if it is typical, will require all pupils to receive 1-4 years of instruction in health and physical education, for which it may or may not prescribe units of credit. As to electives, your state is most likely to allow 8 or more elective subjects within the total 16 Carnegie units that pupils must present for graduation.

Obviously there really are no typical states. In general, the most impressive characteristic of state requirements is their apparent dissimilarity in respect both to specific subject requirements and, to a lesser extent, to the total number of units required for graduation.

While 34 states set the total at the expected 16 units, 14 have different requirements or none at all. Connecticut, Michigan, and Rhode Island either have not established a total number of units for graduation or have eliminated the specification. Six

¹ Ward W. Keesecker and Franklin C. Sewell, *Legal and Regulatory Provisions Affecting Secondary Education*. National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 9. United States Office of Education Bulletin 1932, No. 17.

states have extended their unit requirement above the usual 16: Idaho, Louisiana, and Maryland require 17; California and Oregon, 19; Florida, 20. The added units in the last three mentioned states allow for those states' extended unit requirements in health and physical education—4 units in California and Oregon, 2 in Florida. In other states the maximum requirement for this offering is 1 unit; in fact the allowance of unit credit may be limited by the state to 1

Constitution, and in Wisconsin a regulation makes four years of instruction in health and physical education mandatory for all pupils. Five other states—California, Connecticut, Iowa, Massachusetts, and Michigan—specify only $\frac{1}{2}$ to $1\frac{1}{2}$ subject units exclusive of any requirement in health and physical education. These units are invariably in the field of social studies and are usually American history and government, with possibly state history and government

TABLE 1

SUBJECT REQUIREMENTS FOR HIGH-SCHOOL GRADES IX-XII* AND NUMBER OF STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION REQUIRING UNITS OF CREDIT

SUBJECT	NUMBER OF STATES REQUIRING—							INSTRUCTION REQUIRED BUT UNITS NOT SPECIFIED	No RE- QUIREMENTS
	4 units	3 units	2½ units	2 units	1½ units	1 unit	½ unit		
Social studies....	..	11	1	16	4	10	1	2	3
English.....	15	22	11
Health and physical education..	2	1	..	16	1	12	16†
Science.....	4	..	23	21‡
Mathematics....	1	1	24	22
Fine or practical arts.....	1	..	3	44

* Includes ninth-grade requirements for Minnesota and Pennsylvania, although these states count only units earned in Grades X-XII to compute graduation requirements.

† Three states strongly recommend that the school require 1-4 years of health and physical education.

‡ One state board strongly recommends that a unit of science be required.

unless the total number of units for graduation is increased.

Several states permit a lesser number of units for graduation than 16. Arizona and Massachusetts allow 15 and New Jersey, 15½. Minnesota and Pennsylvania do not count for graduation units earned in Grade IX and set their unit requirement at 12 and 13, respectively.

SUBJECT-AREA REQUIREMENTS AND ELECTIVES

Much more diverse are the requirements in subject areas. Five states—Colorado, Nebraska, Rhode Island, Wisconsin, and Wyoming—have no subject-unit requirements. However, in Colorado and Rhode Island there is a state law which says that all pupils must receive instruction in the

included. In all, then, 10 states allow almost a full slate of electives, at the discretion of the local school systems, of course.

At the other extreme are 5 states—Alabama, Maryland, Missouri, North Carolina, and North Dakota—which allow opportunity for only 5 or 6 electives within the total number of units required for graduation. Also, California and Delaware, while making small prescriptions for general students, allow a minimum of electives for college-preparatory students.

In general, state departments of education do not crowd the pupil's program with specifications to the extent that he is unable to take the elective courses he desires without increasing the total number of units of high-school work beyond 16, or whatever minimum his particular state prescribes.

Thus we find that in 27 states, so far as the state department of education is concerned, a pupil may elect 9 or more units of the required total and, in 9 other states, he may elect 8 of the total required units of work.

SUBJECT AREAS OF CONCERN TO STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION

Social studies is the only area of concern to every state department that sets up any subject-unit requirement for the schools within its borders. In other words, in 45 states there is a requirement of 1 or more units of work in social studies. Forty-one

tion (Table 2) points to some differences in emphasis.

OTHER REQUIREMENTS

Besides the units of instruction in basic subjects, several states have other prerequisites to high-school graduation, such as the teaching of conservation of natural resources (3 states), the effects of alcoholic drinks and narcotics (7 states), and driver education (2 states). Frequently these are statutory requirements.

Still another type of requirement found in a few states is that of majors and minors,

TABLE 2
CHANGES IN REQUIREMENTS FOR HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATION SINCE 1932

	English	Social Studies	Mathematics	Science
States among the 34 reporting subject specifications in the 1932 study which now require:				
Fewer units.....	10	4	11	10
More units.....	4	11	3	3
States among the 14 reporting no specifications in the 1932 study that now include a requirement in the subject.....	6	9	4	4

states stipulate that American history be required; 27 states specify that American government, civics, citizenship, or the Constitution be studied by all pupils. English ranks second in the total number of states requiring it. Health and physical education ranks third as a requirement though not for a stipulated number of units. Science and mathematics are next in order.

Table 1 shows the number of states requiring instruction in each of the basic subject areas.

A comparison of the subject requirements presently in effect with those reported by the National Survey of Secondary Educa-

a major being three years of work in a subject field; a minor, two years. Eight states require that the pupil follow a program which will assure him 2 or 3 years of work in two or more fields. A requirement of 2 majors and 2 minors is typical.

For a state-by-state breakdown of graduation requirements, the reader is referred to Office of Education Circular No. 455, "High School Graduation Requirements Established by State Departments of Education." The circular is available free upon request addressed to the Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington 25, D.C.

EFFECT OF CHANGES IN RURAL LIFE UPON TEACHERS' ATTITUDES TOWARD THE SCHOOL PROGRAM

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IN RURAL AREAS of the country, changes are taking place that make life of twenty and thirty years ago appear relatively primitive. The changes result from a combination of factors essentially related to scientific and technical advance and to improvement of the economic status of the farmer and of the nation as a whole. Progress in the standard and the character of rural living has stimulated social change as well, although this has been more subtle and appears less far-reaching than the material transformation.

With a consistent increase in population and the pressure from economic and social community readjustments, the role of rural education has come under particular scrutiny. In particular, two trends have stimulated this examination: (1) marked expansion in school physical plant and (2) rural school-consolidation programs. To what extent the character of the educational offerings and services to youth are responding to these economic and social innovations is yet to be adequately assessed.

PURPOSE OF PRESENT STUDY

The present study was undertaken with the aim, in part, of determining how the teachers in one rural community are responding, however subtly, to the pressures and demands for change exerted by the conditions without and within the school. A town of 8,000 in southern Minnesota was the site of the study. It is located in the heart of a rich agricultural area, producing principally corn, soybeans, and turkeys. In one way or another, the town is wholly dependent upon the prosperity of the farmers around it, and it is virtually a service community to the surrounding farm area.

Its elementary school serves mostly town children and a small number of rural youth

coming by bus. When the new school is completed, a much larger number of rural children will be enrolled as a result of a consolidation of rural schools with the town school. Rural youth who are now attending one- and two-room schools will henceforth receive their education in as modern and complete a school building as many a large city could boast. In the junior and senior high school a much larger number of rural youth travel by bus to attend.

The study was designed specifically to answer three questions: (1) In the opinion of teachers in this rural community, what can the school do for its young people over and above what is being done at present or is not being done at all? (2) Do young people from the farm require different services from those needed by pupils from the town? (3) Will the answers to these questions when collected by interview be different from the answers obtained by questionnaires?

The data were first collected by interviewing teachers in the elementary and in the junior and senior high schools. In all, seventy-one teachers were interviewed. About five teachers from the junior and senior high school were not seen because of scheduling difficulties. The responses to questions asked in the interview were subsequently classified and tabulated.

A questionnaire was developed from these responses, with categories corresponding to those derived from the interview. The questionnaires were administered to the same teachers approximately a month subsequent to the interviews.

RESPONSES FROM TEACHERS

The responses of the teachers are summarized in Table 1. Although the emphasis of the study was on suggested change, both

TABLE 1
**PER CENT OF RESPONSES OF TEACHERS CONCERNING NEEDED CHANGES IN RURAL-
 SCHOOL PRACTICE OBTAINED BY INTERVIEW AND QUESTIONNAIRE**

RESPONSE	RESPONSES FROM JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS		RESPONSES FROM ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL TEACHERS	
	Interview N=39	Question- naire N=39	Interview N=32	Question- naire N=31
A. Guidance services:				
1. Have at least one full-time professionally trained guidance worker.....	20.5	89.7	35.5
2. Establish a more extensive and intensive guidance program.....	46.2	82.1	6.3	29.0
3. Expand the remedial-reading program.....	12.8	82.1	15.6	80.6
4. Have faculty case conferences concerning students with adjustment problems.....	7.7	66.7	22.6
5. Provide adequate physical facilities for interviews and conferences with students.....	5.1	59.0	12.9
6. Provide more time for teachers to give individual help to students.....	5.1	59.0	31.3	77.4
7. Provide professional help to teachers in their understanding of students with adjustment or other problems.....	12.8	56.4	32.3
8. Help students acquire the social graces and "polish".....	2.6	56.4	25.8
9. Provide teachers with more complete information concerning family background of students.....	10.3	53.8	12.5	54.8
10. Provide psychiatric or similar help to students in great need of it.....	5.1	51.3	41.9
11. Provide more extensive and more complete information to students about college requirements, school curriculums, and so on.....	10.3	46.2	6.5
12. Expand the orientation to school program for entering students.....	15.4	43.9	12.9
13. Maintain more complete records of students.....	2.6	33.3	19.4
Total.....	74.4	100.0	56.3	96.8
B. Extra-curriculum activities:				
1. Limit the number of extra-curriculum activities any one student can enter.....	7.7	59.0	16.1
2. Develop an activity program so that poorer students will have success experiences.....	2.6	53.8	3.1	51.6
3. Provide opportunities for students not musically or athletically inclined to have success experiences in extra-curriculum activity.....	2.6	48.7	48.4
4. Provide a broader dramatics program.....	2.6	46.2	9.7
5. Provide a good recreation program after school so that students will stay away from undesirable activities.....	7.7	28.2	22.6
6. Cut down on extra-curriculum activities because of their interference with academic work.....	2.6	20.5
7. Provide more activities in which more students can socialize.....	10.3	15.4	3.1	29.0
8. More athletics for junior high students.....	2.6	7.7
9. More school dances.....	2.6	5.1	6.5
10. More parties for junior high students.....	2.6	2.6	3.2
Total.....	35.9	97.4	9.4	61.3

TABLE 1—Continued

RESPONSE	RESPONSES FROM JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS		RESPONSES FROM ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL TEACHERS	
	Interview N = 39	Question- naire N = 39	Interview N = 32	Question- naire N = 31
C. Curriculum:				
1. Provide special curriculum for slow learners and mentally retarded.....	2.6	84.6	15.6	61.3
2. Include more vocational courses in the curriculum.....	12.8	59.0		3.2
3. Place more stress upon solid subjects, such as mathematics, physics, and chemistry.....	2.6	38.5		9.7
4. Not enough is being done for the student <i>not</i> going to college.....	2.6	35.9		16.1
5. Not enough is being done for the college-bound student.....	2.6	33.3	9.4	19.4
6. Remove academic credit for glee club and band.....	2.6	28.2		3.2
7. Broaden the variety of agricultural courses for both boys and girls, for example, soil conservation (for boys) and child care (for girls).....	2.6	28.2		12.9
8. Encourage more laboratory work.....	2.6	20.5		9.7
9. Provide more practical work in agriculture courses and less book work.....	2.6	20.5		3.2
10. Include physical education in the lower grades.....		15.4	6.3	35.5
11. Reduce stress upon activities during school day.....	2.6	10.3		6.5
Total.....	28.2	97.4	31.3	67.7
D. Teacher load:				
1. Reduce size of classes.....	7.7	87.2	62.5	90.3
2. Give teacher more free time during the day.....		20.5	18.8	61.3
Total.....	7.7	87.2	75.0	96.8
E. School plant, facilities, and equipment:				
1. Acquire and use more science equipment.....	2.6	51.3		25.8
2. Improve shop facilities.....	2.6	51.3		3.2
3. Better physical facilities for agriculture department.....	2.6	48.7		3.2
4. Provide more buses and shorter bus routes for rural students.....	2.6	35.9		29.0
5. Provide more and diversified equipment to correspond to sizes of classes.....		20.5	18.8	54.8
6. Provide improved play equipment.....		15.4	6.3	41.9
Total.....	7.7	71.8	21.9	74.2
P. Miscellaneous:				
1. Give students a feeling education is important.....	2.6	79.5		41.9
2. Establish a summer-school program for slow learners and retarded children.....		71.8	3.1	61.3
3. Provide information to teachers about classes other than those they teach.....	2.6	38.5		12.9
4. Improve personal relations between teachers and students.....	2.6	35.9		25.8
5. Provide improved health program.....	2.6	20.5		25.8
6. Reduce informality between teachers and students.....	2.6	15.4		6.5
7. No changes necessary or no responses.....	2.6		6.3	
Total.....	10.3	84.6	3.1	58.1

investigator and teachers realized that there is much of value in the present program. In fact, many of the proposed changes are extensions of things already being done.

RESULTS

Guidance services.—The one result which stands out forcefully in the teachers' responses, whether obtained by interview or by questionnaire, is their stress on the need for an organized guidance program, with extended guidance services and at least one full-time professionally trained guidance specialist. This was true in the junior and senior high schools and the elementary school, but particularly in the former. Although not an unknown function in the schools, guidance at present is not carried on by professionally trained persons, and those who do devote time to it are so burdened by their regular responsibilities as to be unable to develop it into an adequate program.

The pressure for guidance service derives from a number of sources. For one, in Minnesota there is considerable awareness of the value of such programs, and the state university has led in the training of guidance workers. A number of the teachers and administrators have had courses in some phase of guidance.

But probably the most important influence is the pressure coming from students themselves, including those now enrolled and former students who come back and informally keep the teachers up to date. From the students in school, teachers are receiving more and more requests for information concerning different colleges and their offerings. Such requests are to be expected. The wealth of this community is much higher today than it was prior to World War II, and more and more young people from the area are attending college and are going farther and farther to do it. In addition, they are preparing for a wider variety of college programs. There is also greater awareness among farm youth of the need for both general and specialized education whether the intention is to remain on the farm or to leave. Farming today is a business that requires, in addition to a large capital invest-

ment, a considerable investment in know-how and variety of skills. Both older and younger farmers are aware of this fact, and the school can anticipate more and more pressure from farm youth for the school to provide this know-how directly as well as to provide information about opportunities for advanced training.

It is becoming apparent, too, that larger numbers of young people are leaving the farm never to return. This trend will continue if farm productivity keeps increasing. With present-day machinery a lone man can care for his 160 acres, whereas in the past at least two or three, and at times even more, persons would be needed. Usually a farmer's sons could find employment on the farm as they grew older. At present many are forced to seek other means of livelihood. Teachers are aware that the school could be of more aid if a vocational-guidance program were available, not only for these farm boys, but for all students.

There is an awareness, too, that even in a small community like this a wider variety of occupations is becoming available—a condition which is true for the state as a whole. Many young people are leaving the community to enter occupations that people from this area formerly did not dream of entering. Teachers and others in the community are sensitive to this change and are groping for more adequate means of dealing with it than the haphazard way in which young men and jobs have come together in the past. Another source of pressure for improved guidance services is exerted by graduates now at college, who are returning to tell of the difficulty in making the transition to college because of lack of early planning and preparation for dealing with the problems encountered in college.

Another source of pressure for guidance services comes from the teacher who finds difficulty in dealing with the occasional, sometimes not so occasional, student who presents a behavior or personality problem. The teacher in this instance feels the need for a trained person with whom he can consult concerning the origin of the difficulty and possible means of handling it.

All in all, the teachers feel that the youth of the school, from both town and country, could be served best by an expanded and formalized guidance program.

Extra-curriculum activities.—To understand the next major concern of these teachers is to understand the place of the school in small-town and rural life. In these communities, with limited recreational and cultural resources (from a large-city point of view), much stress is placed upon sports, and the community takes pride in the school musical activities—and quite justifiably so. Yet to many adults in the community, and to many students as well, the idea of school becomes identified with that of extra-curriculum activity and little else. As a result two groups have developed: a group of citizens who want the school to turn out better teams and bands and another group who feel that the school is losing sight of its educational objectives and is failing in its job of helping students develop the ability to study, achieve intellectually, and generally prepare for their roles as adults.

Teachers, on the whole, take a middle position. They feel that both academic and extra-class activities are important, but they are concerned that there may be too much emphasis in this community on the extra-curriculum phases of the school program. They would like to see (1) a spreading-around of participation in the extra-curriculum activities, (2) a limitation on participation when it interferes with academic achievement, and (3) a somewhat lessened emphasis in the school upon the extra-curriculum in favor of an increased emphasis on other aspects of the school program.

With the trend toward lessening the gap between rural and town living and the benefits of education becoming more apparent to greater numbers of rural people, one may anticipate in the future a greater emphasis on the academic aspects of the school program (with pressure, too, for more vocational training) and a broadening of the base of the school's functioning and service to the community—both rural and town folk.

Curricular change.—Consistent with the trends just mentioned is the desire of the

teachers to have a curriculum which will enable the school to improve its service to particular segments of the school population, principally to students whose intellectual capacities make the present school offering too difficult and to students whose intellectual abilities are of a level that makes the present program not challenging enough. The teachers feel that the grouping-together of students of all ability levels is limiting their progress with each group.

At the same time there is a desire for more vocationally oriented programs for those who will not go on to college. The latter need is also felt by rural youth, who make known a wish for a more diversified and expanded agricultural program that will go far beyond what they can learn directly on the farm. As more and more rural youth come into the larger consolidated schools, the opportunity to provide a more intensive and extensive educational experience will be available. Since the educational attrition rate in these communities is usually rather high, the offering of programs which may keep such youth interested in the school may reverse the trend.

If the teachers' suggestions for change were translated into concrete proposals and were implemented, the curriculum would provide (1) for the college-bound group, more adequate preparation for higher education; (2) for the retarded group, more adequate preparation for assuming the responsibilities of normal life; and (3) for the average, non-college-bound students, an education more consistent with the roles that they will eventually assume in the community. If such curricular provisions were made, the students who would ordinarily drop out of school might find reasons for continuing their educations.

Teacher load and school facilities.—It is possible to anticipate the feelings of high-school teachers in the near future by taking note of the elementary-school teacher's principal response to the interview and questionnaire. The one item which stands out strongest for the elementary-school group has reference to teaching load. With greatly enlarged enrolments, it is becoming increas-

ingly difficult for teachers to deal effectively with their teaching responsibilities, much less provide individual attention for those children who need it. The taxing of existing facilities, added to the reduced time available to individual children, is forcing many of these children to a state of boredom, adding to the teachers' already mounting woes. This state of affairs has stimulated the feeling that a decrease in load, as well as an expansion of facilities, including play materials, is necessary if the best interests of the child are to be served by the teacher. Whether the same situation will prevail in a few years in the high school is hard to foretell, but at least there is more time to head it off.

TABLE 2
TEACHERS WHO BELIEVE RURAL YOUTH
NEED DIFFERENT SCHOOL SERVICES

Type of Response	Junior and Senior High School	Elementary School
Interview:		
Number.....	14	7
Per cent.....	51.8	25.0
Questionnaire:		
Number.....	18	5
Per cent.....	60.0	19.2

RURAL VERSUS TOWN SERVICES

The responses to the question whether rural youth require special attention by the school seem to vary with the school level at which the teachers serve. Fewer teachers in the elementary school are inclined to say "Yes"; in the high school, more (Table 2). This result leads to the conclusion that the answer is a function of the age of the rural youth entering the school program. When the rural child comes to the town school at an early age (as when he enters elementary school), the transition is apparently made very easily. If he comes later (as to high school) for the first time, his adjustment to the physical plant, the social system of the school, the rules and customs, takes more time and is less easily achieved. The teachers who feel special services are necessary for rural youth suggest an orientation program much extended over that at present available.

INTERVIEW VERSUS QUESTIONNAIRE DATA

One thing becomes apparent from an examination of the accompanying tables: the frequency of response for each item is considerably greater in the questionnaire. The reasons for this may be manifold, for example: (1) time pressure in the interview may influence the respondent not to be too expansive even though the interview is structured otherwise; (2) the person will respond only with those ideas that stand out as immediate and pressing, and items lower in a hierarchy of urgency will not be elicited; (3) there may not be an awareness that certain responses are acceptable or desirable.

When the rank orders of responses to both interview and questionnaire are compared for general categories, it becomes evident that the responses obtained by the two methods are essentially the same. For example, in the high-school group the category of "Guidance services" stands out as primary in both interview and questionnaire.

If specific items are considered instead of general categories, there is rather general agreement, although there is more shifting in the rank order of responses.

If analysis of the results of the study employs both general categories and specific items of response, the same conclusions are reached, on the whole, as are obtained from the results using either method alone.

It could be concluded, then, that the interview is most useful for (1) eliciting the items or categories most relevant to a particular question and therefore for obtaining the variables to be used in a questionnaire study; (2) determining the items which will be most urgent. These ranks may be taken account of in questionnaires by introducing a technique for indicating priorities among alternatives.

Whether one uses the interview or questionnaire should depend upon the purpose and the nature of the study. For exploratory purposes the interview appears more adequate. For verification or for application of a well-established framework to a new group, questionnaire techniques may be more appropriate.

TELEVISION IN EDUCATION: POSSIBILITIES AND OBSTACLES

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EDUCATION usually approaches new developments with caution. This is so with television, which probably holds greater promise for education than any other single development since the invention of the printing press. The promise of television for education and some of its implications will be briefly discussed in this article.

VALUES AND OPPORTUNITIES OF TELEVISION IN EDUCATION

Considering the crucial status of the world, it is imperative that modern education catch up with the twentieth century. Today human beings throughout the world are beset by complex problems—economic, political, industrial, racial, and personal. The past does not afford any simple guide to the solution of the profound difficulties that face us. From what source is the public to get the proper understanding of issues that surround us? An elementary knowledge of the lives of our great leaders, which will indicate to us how they met the problems of their own times? A better knowledge of the history of our country and of how we became a great nation? A knowledge of the propaganda techniques of our enemies, which will enable each of us to analyze propaganda and learn how to reach the truth? A knowledge of hygiene for everyday living? A better understanding and appreciation of one's self and of other people?

The answer is, "From television." The educational possibilities of television are tremendous. It can supply information that will aid in finding answers to some of our perplexing problems. It is tailor-made for adult education at home. It can help individuals develop skills for aesthetic and creative living and can provide insights into the professional fields. It can provide new op-

portunities for shut-ins to interest themselves in community and world affairs. It can bring exciting and worth-while happenings to classroom or living-room as those events occur. The varied interests and needs of students, housewives, men and women in business, doctors, lawyers, labor-union members, farmers, and innumerable others can be met by well-conceived programs. Music, drama, exhibits in the art museum, the great variety of cultural and educational opportunities that this country possesses can be brought into the classroom and the living-room.

As a supplement to the work of the teacher, thoughtful television programs directed to the needs of the school community could make a valuable contribution to classroom instruction. Television should be used as an integral part of the school curriculum, for it can bring to the students the outstanding teacher, the distinguished visitor, and demonstrations from well-equipped laboratories. It has great potentiality in the classroom as a tool for motivation, enrichment, and review. Alert teachers and parents, making imaginative use of ideas and practices, can change this potentiality into actuality.

Furthermore, television comes at an important time in the growth of our public school system. Record appropriations of funds are still insufficient to meet the needs of overloaded schools, which are hamstrung by the necessity of hiring thousands of teachers with substandard certification. In the face of this situation, administrators and teachers are realizing the immediate need for revamping their methods, some believing that structural changes are inevitable. Those who are thinking creatively on the subject of television in American schools

and colleges are finding that making plans for use of this new medium involves a thorough re-examination of the full picture of education today. Television may be the trigger that will set off this much-needed re-examination.

The opportunities for telecasting all kinds of learning situations to viewers at home and in school are of endless variety. Television can make education timely, voluntary, and personal. Viewing and hearing an event while it is taking place gives the viewer a sense of expectancy, a sense of participation in reality, and holds his attention and interest. The medium of television is immediate, realistic, intimate, and revealing. It can be persuasive, literal, or suggestive. A program can be spontaneous, or it can be recorded, with a desired continuity. Above all, television means that education as a lifetime process can become a reality.

TELEVISION CAN TEACH

A number of studies have sought to determine how effective television is as a teaching tool. The Special Devices Center of the United States Navy at Port Washington, New York, made a series of experiments (2) in this area. They concluded that television, in general, can teach; that it is probably equal to, or better than, the conventional instruction in the majority of cases; and that television can be used alone but will be more effective when used in and with classroom instruction.

In another study (4) the United States Department of Agriculture sponsored a television series on sewing, called "Let's Make a Dress." Interviews were held with a random selection of women from a list who had requested a free bulletin offered on two television programs out of eleven. Seven of the eight who viewed one or more programs said they had learned new things about dress-making from the television demonstrations.

The New Jersey State Teachers College at Montclair produced eight programs of lesson material which were transmitted over an experimental television channel to receivers in thirteen public schools in the towns of Bloomfield and Montclair (1). The

performances were used as part of the regular schoolwork for one day by the classes for which they were designed. Evaluations of these programs made by educational officials, teachers, and pupils concluded (1) that television can make a valuable contribution as a supplement to classroom teaching; (2) that it brings to the classroom experiences, materials, and demonstrations not readily available by other means; (3) that it stimulates pupil interest and activity and broadens the pupils' backgrounds; and (4) that the twenty- to thirty-minute program fits into most school schedules and leaves time for discussion before the end of the period.

Forty half-hour programs, directed at New York naval reservists, were telecast as a regular television series over WOR-TV, a commercial station (3). Television students scored consistently higher than non-television students taught in the classroom. Most students commented that they were favorable to the medium of television as a teaching method. The newness and fascination of the medium and greater competence in, or better organization of, the presentation may have accounted for the superiority in individual learning.

Aside from these studies and a few others not mentioned here, little research has been done to prove the effectiveness of television in teaching. However, the results of the studies outlined above give substantial evidence that television does an adequate, and perhaps superior, job of teaching.

FOUR OBSTACLES TO MAINTAINING AN EDUCATIONAL TELEVISION STATION

Unfortunately four obstacles appear to be delaying progress of educational television stations. The first obstacle is financial—a controversial issue. The ultra-high-frequency (UHF) channels that have been set aside for use in education by the Federal Communications Commission have not been fully utilized largely because of the cost involved. Both critics and educators have overemphasized this problem, however, as they have not fully recognized all the variables which affect the total cost picture in

every locality. They have not realized that the operating costs are likely to be as different from community to community as are capital costs.

Some of the variables which make each locality a unique problem and which local educators must consider are as follows: (1) relevant experience with radio, commercial and closed-circuit television, films, and other communication media; (2) adaptability of existing buildings or other physical or organizational facilities; (3) terrain, which may affect transmitter and tower costs; (4) local availability of program resources and number of educational agencies in the area with useful program materials; (5) available operating personnel (for both the technical and the program aspects); and (6) possibility of co-operation with commercial and other educational stations for programing purposes.

Putting a television station into operation is estimated to cost \$250,000 on the average. This amount represents but a fraction of the money spent on other educational buildings and operations. For example, a combination public school gymnasium-auditorium with a seating capacity of one hundred costs between \$125,000 and \$300,000, and a high-school building with a capacity of two hundred ranges from \$300,000 to \$400,000. Even though an educational television station costs less than a first-class football stadium, many cities are having tough sledding in raising the needed capital for television. If local educators see the need for an educational television station, they should consider the following as possible sources of funds: finding funds within existing budget levels, public solicitation, industrial contributions, public appropriation, and local foundations.

To maintain an educational television station, then, requires the broadest kind of financial and social support from the whole community that it serves. Educators must recognize that the expense of educational television is one of the major problems to be solved. But when full account is taken of television's effectiveness and extensive coverage, it is, in fact, a relatively inexpen-

sive medium of education serving thousands of persons, day and night, in schools and in homes. Considering its values, opportunities, and potentialities, the maintaining of an educational television station would seem to be well worth the cost it may entail.

A second obstacle is that most educational television stations are assigned UHF channels. Since most television receivers in homes today can receive only VHF (very-high-frequency) channels, an educational station must persuade set-owners to buy a converter and separate antenna at a cost of \$35-\$75.

The third main obstacle is the educators' lack of skill in programing for television. One manager of an educational television station asserts that educators are about five years behind the commercial producers in terms of technical quality. Viewers have become accustomed to the high technical quality of commercial production and tend to be hypercritical of the relative amateurishness of the typical educational television program. This same station manager is convinced, however, that educators can, if they will, catch up to commercial program directors in much less than the five years it took the latter to attain their present level of competence.

The fourth, and perhaps most fundamental, obstacle is the lack of unity and community-centeredness on the part of the educational organizations in most communities. American educational institutions have developed a long tradition of rugged individualism, in which the uniqueness and autonomy of each institution have been treasured. Yet a local educational television station can be established only by the joint efforts of all educational institutions in the area, and it will meet the educational needs of its community only if they pool their resources in an integrated program rather than competing for time for their own special interests.

None of these obstacles is insuperable, and all are gradually being overcome. Considerable distance remains to be covered, however, before the public and the educational leaders reach an understanding of the

opportunities and requirements of educational television.

UTILIZATION OF COMMERCIAL STATIONS

With the continued improvement of commercial programs, some educators are waking up to their educational potentialities. As part of their own programming, several commercial stations are now regularly presenting educational programs throughout the week. Some of these presentations have been straight, informational reporting, as in newscasts, congressional hearings, the Edward R. Murrow program, and the like. "Ding Dong School," "Zoo Parade," "Mr. Wizard," and "Omnibus" are examples of what the commercial stations are bringing to the public in the educational field.

Furthermore, commercial stations have demonstrated a willingness to co-operate with educators by using valuable time in their schedules for programs geared to the school curriculum and to educational interests of adults. Several colleges, universities, and public school systems have utilized commercial facilities in presenting educational programs. New York, Chicago, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Schenectady, and other cities have had commercial station co-operation.

Many arrangements for television programming may be worked out between educational institutions and commercial stations. Programs may be presented on networks, on several stations, or on one station. Several institutions may co-operate in presenting programs on one station. School facilities can be used in conjunction with those of a commercial station and vice versa. The television performances presented on commercial stations may be adapted almost directly from classroom lectures and seminars, may be of an experimental nature, may be a drama, or may be informational, with much use of demonstrations and visual devices. In any case it would obviously be a serious mistake for those concerned with community education to overlook commercial television as an educational resource. The extent to which

commercial stations become educational resources depends largely upon the kind of co-operation they get from, and among, educational agencies and the quality of the programs that the educators are able to produce.

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

Television will never be an educational panacea. It is not going to replace the teacher. Nothing can take the place of face-to-face contact between teacher and pupil, of interplay of personalities, of questions and discussion. Educational television is not going to outmode the classroom, although it will have its place in the classroom as well as in the home. It is not going to eliminate the use of films or slides or blackboards or any other of the traditional educational tools. Above all, it is essential that television in education be viewed in the proper perspective, without fear on one hand or hysterical enthusiasm on the other.

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PREPARATION FOR TEACHING GENERAL-EDUCATION COURSES IN JUNIOR COLLEGES

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THE purposes of this study were (1) to learn what value a selected group of teachers of general-education courses in junior colleges place upon those aspects of preparation indorsed by the literature of the field and by state and regional accrediting standards, (2) to compare the judgments of (a) these teachers with judgments also obtained from a group of (b) junior-college administrators and from (c) a panel of experts composed of professors of junior-college education, (3) to learn what aspects and types of preparation the three groups of respondents considered most adequate for junior-college teachers, and (4) to make recommendations concerning desirable types of teacher preparation for this task.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The writer first made a review of the literature, which revealed concern among students of education with three general problems in the preparation of all college teachers: (1) specialization in subject-matter areas which they believe to be too narrow; (2) the tendency of graduate schools to emphasize competence in research rather than in classroom teaching; and (3) the lack of a well-defined program of preparation intended to develop the skills, techniques, understandings, and attitudes essential to successful teaching.

Writers state that one of the crucial problems facing higher education today is the provision of integrated general-education programs and that colleges do not have faculty members who are prepared to teach these integrated courses. There is general acceptance of the view that the provision of general education should be one of the primary functions of the junior college, and

it would seem that neither training in a narrow subject-matter specialty nor the development of competence as research specialists is adequate for the needs of junior-college teaching personnel.

The literature contains a number of specific recommendations of elements or areas of professional preparation for junior-college teachers. In his review and analysis the writer identified fourteen such areas, among which were courses dealing with the history, purposes, and curriculum of the junior college; the guidance problems of its students; and the psychology of post-adolescent youth. Included in these fourteen areas were also courses in secondary and higher education, testing and measurements, psychology of learning, educational philosophy, the functions of education in the social order, educational statistics, college teaching methods, supervised teaching, and junior-college organization and administration.

Students of the field believe that the minimum preparation for junior-college teaching should be one year of graduate study, which should usually lead to a Master's degree. A considerable body of opinion holds that an additional degree representing a year of graduate preparation beyond the Master's degree is desirable, and some writers believe that a doctorate which would combine broad subject-matter preparation with the needed elements of professional training is the standard of excellence for which these teachers should strive. There are doubts, however, that the traditional doctoral programs will permit either the needed subject-matter breadth or the type of research experience most helpful to junior-college teachers, particularly those who are preparing for careers in general education. One

suggested solution for this problem is the creation of a new doctorate intended to meet the specific needs of this group of teachers.

STANDARDS OF STATE DEPARTMENTS AND ACCREDITING AGENCIES

The departments of education of twenty-five of the forty-eight states have formulated statements of the preparation required or expected of the junior-college teacher. Five of the six regional accrediting agencies have adopted criteria by which they propose to evaluate the teaching personnel of junior colleges applying for institutional membership. While the analyses of state and regional accrediting standards did not give significant additions to the elements and aspects of training that had been gathered from the literature, they tended to emphasize the recommendations that the writers had made.

PROCEDURE OF STUDY

The colleges chosen for faculty participation in the study were located in the eleven states included in the territory of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. The catalogues of the 196 junior colleges located in this area were studied in order to identify those institutions professing to offer a general-education program. Administrators of the eighteen junior colleges thus identified were then asked (1) whether the institution was currently offering a general-education program; (2) whether the list of objectives drawn up by the writer for the research instrument was similar to, or the same as, the objectives of the college program; and (3) whether the college would participate in the study. Affirmative replies to all three questions were received from sixteen of these colleges. Administrator respondents were from these sixteen institutions and from twelve junior colleges offering general-education programs in California. The panel of experts was composed of professors from thirteen graduate schools currently offering preparation specifically for teaching in junior colleges.

The data of the study are based on the

literature and accrediting standards and on the replies of 134 teachers, of 28 administrators, and of 14 experts. Returns from these three groups were 74.4 per cent, 100 per cent, and 100 per cent, respectively. Additional data were gathered, and a check on the reliability of teacher replies was made by visiting two of the participating institutions for interviews with sixteen teachers from whom replies had been received.

Serving as guidelines to the study were such questions as the following:

1. What are the reactions of these respondents to departmental specialization compared with training in broad subject-matter areas or divisions?
2. Do general-education teachers trained in the narrowly departmentalized tradition consider broader preparation desirable?
3. Are there relationships between the sort of preparation that these teachers have had and their responses to these issues in teacher preparation?
4. Do teachers of integrated courses express training needs that differ from those expressed by teachers of traditional departmentalized courses? If so, are teachers of integrated courses more in agreement or less in agreement with the panel of experts than are teachers of departmentalized courses?

The judgments of the three groups of respondents were treated statistically by the chi square test to determine whether there were significant differences in the opinions held by teachers, administrators, and experts. The teachers were also divided into subgroups in terms of their training and the type of curriculum in which they were teaching, and responses by these subgroups were compared statistically. For comparisons in terms of the training variable, teachers were designated as Group A and Group B. Group A was composed of teachers who did not report training in the area or of the type being judged, and Group B was composed of those teachers who did report such training.

While replies were gathered only from teachers in the general-education curriculum of co-operating institutions, two distinct types of subject-matter organization were found in these programs. Some institutions

had organized a number of the traditional departmental courses into a curriculum which was intended to provide the student with a general education, and other institutions offered broad integrated courses in general studies. For making comparisons of judgments in terms of the type-of-curriculum variable, the teachers in these two types of courses were divided into Groups 1 and 2, respectively.

The results of an intergroup comparison were considered statistically significant when the obtained chi square gave a probability equal to 0.05 or less.

OPINIONS ON TEACHER-PREPARATION CURRICULUMS

Seven descriptions of teacher-preparation curriculums were supplied, and respondents were asked to judge them in terms of their adequacy for preparing a person to teach general-education courses in junior college. Respondents were given the choice of checking each of the seven plans as "Adequate," "Fairly adequate," "Poor," or "Wholly inadequate."

Teachers, administrators, and experts were in substantial agreement that the most adequate preparation for teaching general studies provides the prospective teacher with specialized knowledge in a single field reinforced by broad preparation in related fields and professional courses in education. They were also in agreement that preparation placing major emphasis upon professional courses is not adequate.

Significantly different judgments were given by the three groups concerning the adequacy of preparation that provides only specialized knowledge in a single field. The teachers in Groups 1 and 2, classified according to the type of curriculum taught, were found to differ significantly in their judgments of specialized preparation. Teachers of departmental-type courses (Group 1) were indecisive to favorable, but teachers of integrated courses (Group 2) judged this sort of preparation to be inadequate. Differences in the judgments by

teachers of integrated courses (Group 2), administrators, and experts were not significant when tested by chi square.

The preponderance of opinion among teachers, administrators, and experts was that the teacher of general education should have a minimum of one year of graduate study, which should usually lead to the Master's degree. With considerable frequency they replied that there should be an additional year of graduate preparation and that it would be desirable for this preparation to terminate in an appropriate degree. Opinion was somewhat divided in each of the groups whether a doctorate is desirable or necessary. Comparisons of the judgments concerning these quantitative aspects of preparation given by the three classes of respondents showed no significant difference, nor were the opinions significantly different between teacher subgroups compared in terms of the training and the type-of-curriculum variables.

Intergroup tests showed significant differences in the judgments concerning various doctoral programs. Teachers, to a greater extent than administrators and experts, judged a Ph.D. degree preferable to other proposed doctorates, while administrators and experts more frequently indicated a need for a new program designed to meet the specific requirements of the junior-college teacher. A comparison of judgments of teachers in Groups 1 and 2, however, showed that they also differed significantly in this opinion. Further comparisons of teachers of integrated courses (Group 2) with administrators and experts showed that these three groups did not differ significantly in their tendencies to favor the creation of a new program. The writer hypothesized that the favorable opinion of teachers of integrated courses toward a new doctorate was predicated upon their belief that neither preparation in a narrow subject-matter specialty nor specialized training in research was desirable for the general-education teacher. Interviews with sixteen of these teachers during the writer's visits to their institutions indicated that this hypothesis was tenable.

RELATION OF RESEARCH AND TEACHING

The preponderance of opinion among respondents was that teaching rather than research is the function of the junior-college teacher of general studies; that his graduate research experience and later research activities, if he engages in later research, should be a means of personal and professional growth as a classroom teacher rather than a means to the discovery of new knowledge *per se*. The various intergroup and intragroup comparisons showed no differences that were statistically significant in judgments of this aspect of preparation.

OPINIONS ON THE VALUE OF PROFESSIONAL COURSES

In their judgments of courses in fourteen professional areas recommended by the literature and by accrediting standards, respondents were given the choices of rating them "Very valuable to indispensable," "Valuable," "Of some value," or "Of no value." Teachers tended to place at least some value upon training in each of the fourteen areas, and a majority of them judged courses in half of the areas to have real value. Combining teacher judgments for the first two ratings showed that 60 per cent or more of all the teachers gave ratings of "Valuable" or higher to courses in the following seven areas:

- Psychology of late-adolescent or post-adolescent youth
- Junior-college student personnel and guidance
- Psychology of learning at the junior-college level
- History, aims, functions, and problems of the junior college
- Educational testing and measurements
- College teaching methods
- History and philosophy of education

When only the judgments of the teachers reporting training in the area being judged (Group B) were considered, the following four additional areas were rated "Valuable" or higher by 60 per cent or more of the teachers:

- Supervised teaching of college-level courses
- Junior-college curriculum
- The school and the social order
- A course in higher education

Courses in the remaining three areas (secondary education, junior-college organization and administration, and statistics for education) were rated "Valuable" or higher by less than 60 per cent of Group B teachers. The ratings of "Valuable" or higher ranged from 48 to 100 per cent for Group B teachers and from 23 to 77 per cent for all teachers.

"Of no value" ratings given any of the fourteen areas were, with few exceptions, bestowed by teachers who had not taken courses in the areas under consideration.

Administrators and experts tended to give significantly higher ratings to courses in these fourteen areas than did the teachers as a whole. When teachers in Group B, administrators, and experts were compared, no significant differences were found in judgments of twelve of these areas. Group B teachers differed from administrators and experts in their opinions of the value of courses in the areas of student personnel and guidance and of higher education, the former giving significantly higher ratings to these courses than did the administrators and the experts.

Respondents were asked to check on a scale of 0 per cent to 100 per cent the approximate portion of the teacher's preparation which, in their opinion, should be devoted to professional courses at both the undergraduate and the graduate levels. Only a small minority of the teachers would dispense with professional courses at either of these levels, but the teacher group as a whole was willing to allot a smaller portion of total preparation to professional training at both levels than were the administrators and the experts.

Teachers were divided into Groups C and D, those who reported less than twelve hours in professional courses composing Group C and those who reported twelve or more hours in professional courses composing Group D. These two groups gave signifi-

cantly different opinions concerning the value of professional courses. It was found (1) that most Group C teachers would dispense with all professional courses; (2) that they tended to relegate such courses largely to undergraduate years, thus favoring the allotment of a smaller portion of total preparation in professional areas to the graduate rather than the undergraduate level; and (3) that they differed significantly from administrators and experts by allotting a smaller portion of preparation to these areas at both levels of preparation. Teachers in Group D (1) rarely felt that professional courses should be omitted at either the undergraduate or the graduate level, (2) favored allotting a significantly greater portion of the teacher's total preparation to professional training at the graduate than at the undergraduate level, and (3) did not differ significantly from the experts and the administrators in the suggested fractions at either level.

IMPLICATIONS OF FINDINGS

Evidence gathered by this study implies that the general-education function is performed inadequately by junior colleges of the South. Of 196 junior colleges in the area qualifying for listing by the American Association of Junior Colleges, only 18 met the modest criteria the writer had adopted for general-education programs. Faculty members from sixteen of these institutions agreed to participate in the study. Only four of the sixteen institutions were offering integrated courses: two offered a full program of an integrated nature, and two others were experimenting with a combination of integrated and departmental-type courses in a general-education curriculum.

The administrative head of each participating college accepted as the purposes of his general-education program the list of comprehensive objectives used in the teacher self-evaluation section of the research instrument. On the other hand, not many of these comprehensive objectives were consistently reported by the teachers as their own classroom teaching goals. Furthermore,

some teachers who reported the adoption of an objective rated themselves as poorly prepared to teach it. This was particularly true of teachers reporting that they attempted to teach students to understand and appreciate music, art, and other cultural activities as expressions of personal and social experience. The inference is that serious classroom effort to achieve many of these objectives is unlikely in those southern junior colleges that profess to offer general-education curriculums.

A comparison of the type of preparation which these teachers consider adequate for general-education teaching with the sort of preparation which they themselves received and an analysis of the further information gathered by interviews imply that teachers in the sixteen programs studied tended to regard their formal training as inadequate for their teaching tasks. This inference seems particularly justified in the case of teachers of integrated courses.

Writers in the field maintain that there is a trend in the first two years of colleges and universities toward general education in broad fields and that this trend is likely to be retarded more by inadequately trained teachers than by any other factor. If these statements are true, they lend support to the pleas for greater breadth in the graduate preparation of all college teachers. The findings of this study imply that broad training in subject-matter areas is needed for prospective teachers of junior colleges, and one may legitimately question whether there should be specific differentiation in the preparation of teachers for these institutions. Careful research may reveal that the qualities and the subject-matter training that make good teachers of integrated courses are generally the same for all colleges.¹

It stands to reason that, if the teacher is to integrate knowledge, understandings, skills, and appreciations, he must have an

¹ Wilford M. Mallon and Others, "Apprenticeship," *The Preparation of College Teachers*, p. 142. Reports of Conferences and Committees, Series I, Vol. XIV, No. 42. Washington: American Council on Education, 1950.

acquaintance with them himself. The teachers responding to this study have indicated that the nature of their general-education tasks calls for both broad scholarship and teaching skills. A great deal of research and experimentation will probably be required before it can be determined which of the various methods of organizing graduate subject-matter content will best prepare the teacher of integrated courses. Conceivably, various subject areas will call for differing patterns in order to supply both breadth and depth. Teachers, administrators, and experts replying to this study, however, believe this can be most effectively done by providing a firm core of specialized knowledge, around which may be organized and integrated broad preparation in the related areas.

The findings of this study imply that humanities teachers are not prepared to deal with art and music. This may represent a need in the humanities more general than the small sample of teachers replying to this study specifically implies.

Replies by teachers, experts, and administrators justify the inference that considerable graduate preparation is needed to meet the needs of junior-college teachers of general education and that the conventional Master's and Doctor's degree programs are not well geared to their training needs. The writer questions the wisdom of multiplying degree titles and designations and would recommend, instead, that graduate schools engage in experimentation with modifications of present degree programs at all levels. There should also be careful and continuous study of the ways in which the research experiences of students in various subject areas may contribute to the breadth and integration of the students' knowledge and, whenever possible, to the solution of classroom teaching problems.

The replies to this study indicate that

many aspects of professional preparation have value for the junior-college teacher of general education. Graduate schools whose advanced-degree candidates are likely to become teachers of general education in junior colleges should note these implications for professional training needs. It is recommended that research and experimentation discover the professional needs of the teacher from time to time and that an attempt be made to base the teacher's professional courses upon discovered or implied needs and techniques.

It may be concluded that the needs implied by an analysis of the data used in this study can best be met (1) by providing undergraduate preparation that is broad in perspective and that encourages the student to explore wide and varied interests; (2) by continuing this breadth in subject-matter areas during graduate preparation, with some attention to gaps that may still remain in the student's general knowledge; (3) by providing the requisite depth in a broad area during the period of graduate preparation; (4) by planning research experiences that contribute to breadth and integration as well as the solution of practical professional problems; and (5) by providing an orientation to professional problems during upper-division undergraduate work and allotting a considerable portion of graduate preparation to professional training areas. Inferences to be drawn from the data are that the professional courses may well provide the student with an understanding of the junior college—its functions and objectives, its students and their personal and learning problems—and with the techniques for successful teaching and evaluation of student progress. In addition, the teacher should have some knowledge of the educational process at related or adjacent school levels and of the philosophy and purposes of education in the social order.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON EXTRA-CLASS ACTIVITIES

CLAYTON M. GJERDE AND MARVIN D. ALCORN

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THE past year saw the publication of a large number of articles dealing specifically with extra-class activities. The references below, selected on the basis of their value and representativeness, reveal the continuing efforts of educators to make extra-class activities a strong educative force in the modern public school. Most of the articles were either descriptive or philosophical, although a few dealt with research, primarily of an evaluative nature. Even the research studies, however, tended to be descriptive rather than experimental, and they were criticized by one writer because they describe the status quo while failing to point out possible future actions for improvement.

That the needs of the pupils come first in the minds of educators is evident, not only in the articles which expound on the values of extra-class activities, but in the continuing concern over regulating pupil participation in these activities. Continued attention is also given to sponsors and their preparation, to the home room, and to financing and record-keeping.

The student council continues as an area of special concern to many. In addition to the articles listed below, there is an extended description of the history and development of the National Association of Student Councils (including a directory of member councils for the year 1954-55) in the *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals* for October, 1955. The April, 1955, issue of the *Bulletin*, which presents the proceedings of the thirty-ninth annual convention, should also be consulted, since it includes summaries of at least six convention sessions related to extra-class activities.

413. BROOKS, HAROLD B. "Educating for Citizenship through the Student Council in the Junior High School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIX (November, 1955), 69-74.

Describes in detail the process and product of a reorganization of a junior high school student council. Includes objectives, plans, accomplishments, and responsibilities of the student council and describes how other school activities are regulated by the student council.

414. BURRUP, PERCY E. "Handling the Finances of Student Activities," *Nation's Schools*, LVI (November, 1955), 87-88.

States and clarifies twelve basic principles for handling school finances. The principles include those of sound financial practice but emphasize sound educational values as well.

415. A COMMITTEE IN CLASS with W. SCOTT SMITH. "That All-important Home Room," *School Activities*, XXVII (December, 1955), 115-22.

Covers, in the form of a sociodrama, the various purposes and functions of the home room.

416. D'AGOSTINO, N. "System of Record Keeping for High Schools," *Balance Sheet*, XXXVI (January, 1955), 209-11.

Describes in detail the record-keeping system in use in one high school.

417. DODSON, TAYLOR. "How the Coach and Physical Education Teacher Can Co-operate," *School Activities*, XXVII (September, 1955), 21-23.

Offers a number of suggestions for better coordination of physical-education classes and athletics, which will benefit both programs.

418. ERICKSON, JAMES H. M. "High School Secret Societies Can Be Eliminated," *School Activities*, XXVI (January, 1955), 149-51.

Analyzes legal aspects of the problem of secret societies and suggests seven steps in a program of elimination.

419. GORDON, TED, and OTHERS. "Add the 'Extras' to 'Class' Activities," *School Activities*, XXVI (February, 1955), 184-87.

Offers helpful suggestions to new teachers who sponsor extra-class activities.

420. GREEN, H. H. "Care and Feeding of Clubs," *Business Education World*, XXXV (December, 1954), 11-13.

Lists advantages and disadvantages of school clubs. Points out the need for a club constitution, an interested sponsor, student leadership, planned meetings, and adequate financing.

421. GRIMES, ELEANOR PRISCILLA. "Creative Music as an Extracurricular Activity," *School Activities*, XXVII (November, 1955), 87-89.

Suggests how gifted, as well as average, students can achieve creative expression through musical activities which are not feasible in large class groups.

422. HARE, A. PAUL. "An Evaluation of Extra-curriculum Activities," *School Review*, LXIII (March, 1955), 164-68.

Although this research was an evaluation of extra-curriculum activities at the college level, it has significance for the high school both in its methodology and in its findings. Concludes that extra-class activities have educational values and that these values vary with the activity.

423. HUGHES, PAT. "Wanted: Extra-curricular Specialist," *School Executive*, LXXIV (November, 1954), 52-53.

Briefly outlines the advantages that would be derived from the employment of a specialist who would co-ordinate the entire extra-curriculum program.

424. KEISLAR, E. R. "Differences among Adolescent Social Clubs in Terms of Members' Characteristics," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLVIII (December, 1954), 95-97.

Reports results of a study of 785 pupils belonging to 50 different clubs sponsored jointly by the school and the local Y.M.C.A. and Y.W.C.A.

425. LERCH, ALBERT M. "For Whose Glory?" *School Activities*, XXVII (October, 1955), 43-45.

Attacks the problem of rivalries among classroom teachers and activity sponsors over student participation.

426. LERCH, ALBERT M. "Why the Home Room Fails," *School Activities*, XXVII (November, 1955), 93-95.

Gives ten specific suggestions for preventing home-room failure.

427. LIVINGSTON, NANCY W. "Regulating Participation in Club Activities," *Clearing House*, XXX (October, 1955), 118-20.

Describes how a junior-senior high school reorganized its extra-curriculum program in such a way as to regulate student participation more effectively.

428. McALLISTER, ELLIS S. "The Extra-curricular Activities of the Senior High Schools of Utah," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIX (November, 1955), 88-93. (Also in *School Activities*, XXVII [December, 1955], 132-34.)

Reports the results of a state-sponsored survey of the extra-curriculum activities in senior high schools in Utah and lists nine resulting recommendations and five suggestions for additional research.

429. McCANN, LLOYD E. "Managing Student Activities Funds," *American School Board Journal*, CXXX (June, 1955), 48-49.

Points out the confused legal status of student-activities funds and suggests needed legal bases for their management.

430. MARDEN, FRED A. W. "Current Practices Relating to Student Council Sponsors," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIX (May, 1955), 164-70.

Reports the results of a survey of 264 public secondary schools in New Jersey with regard to selection, responsibilities, work load, and facilities for work of student-council sponsors.

431. NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF STUDENT COUNCILS. *1954 Student Council Yearbook*. Washington: National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1954. Pp. 267.

Furnishes a complete report of the eighteenth annual National Conference of Student Councils, held in St. Paul, Minnesota, and includes a chapter on financial practices of student councils and a bibliography of student-council articles.

432. PATRICK, ROBERT B. "Practice Lags behind Theory in Financing Co-curricular Activities," *School Activities*, XXVI (January, 1955), 153-55.

Indicates, from the results of two national surveys, that the board of education helps finance co-curricular activities in only a small per cent of the schools. Outlines a proposal for an educationally acceptable program of financing such activities.

433. POVENMIRE, M. A. "School Morale Factors," *School Activities*, XXVI (May, 1955), 279-83.

Outlines the factors which promote good morale in the Lakewood (Ohio) High School, including a comprehensive program of student activities.

434. RENNICK, DONALD, and HEARN, ARTHUR C. "Some Basic Trends in School Activities," *School Activities*, XXVI (January, 1955), 147-48.

Summarizes five trends in school activities during the past fifteen to twenty years which have brought American education closer to a realization of basic objectives.

435. "Room for Growing Up," *NEA Journal*, XLIV (May, 1955), 272-73.

Describes the unique social center operated by Lakewood (Ohio) high-school students.

436. SOLON, HELYA T. "Social Organizations, Parties, Dances," *School Activities*, XXVII (September, 1955), 23-24.

Proposes ways to derive more educational values from social activities sponsored by the school.

437. STERNER, WILLIAM S. "The Team and I," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIX (November, 1955), 77-80.

Makes a strong case for student participation in school management rather than student self-government. Maintains that solving school problems

requires the co-operative efforts of students, faculty and administration and then defines the roles each group will play.

438. TACEY, WILLIAM S. "Incorporating Speech Training in the Home Room," *School Activities*, XXVI (May, 1955), 290-93.

Suggests many opportunities for speech development through student participation in home-room activities.

439. TOMPKINS, ELLSWORTH. "Desirable and Undesirable Policies for Extraclass Activities," *School Activities*, XXVI (February, 1955), 179-81.

Criticizes surveys of extra-class activities which describe the status quo instead of considering what should be done. Suggests how to develop a more sound activities program.

440. TOTTINGHAM, ROBERT L. "Planning and Directing Student Publications," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIX (November, 1955), 112-14.

Defines five essential ingredients for a school publication program.

441. VAN POOL, G. M. "Cherish Your Activity Program!" *Clearing House*, XXIX (January, 1955), 259-63.

Builds a strong case for the educational value of the extra-class activity program and gives seven specific suggestions for improving school activities.

442. VON TUNGELN, ANNIE L. "Are We Overworking Teen-Agers?" *Today's Health*, XXXIII (February, 1955), 28-31.

Describes the difficulties faced by many high-school students as they try to keep up with activities in school and out and suggests that, for many students, adult help is necessary in choosing wisely from the many available opportunities.

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS



REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

RONALD C. FAUNCE, *Secondary School Administration*. New York 16: Harper & Bros., 1955. Pp. xii+388. \$4.50.

The first question with which the would-be author of a new textbook must deal, and especially in a subject field for which numerous books already exist, is what he has to offer that other writers have not offered. It may be new data or new arrangements of familiar data; it may be a new interpretation or orientation of essentially common knowledge; he may direct his writing toward an audience not well reached by other books; he may try for greater readability; or he may aim for a book which, by virtue of coverage, organization, and specific materials used, more nearly stands on its own feet as a teaching instrument.

It is usually possible to obtain from the editor's and author's introductory remarks some idea as to which of the foregoing motives, or others, were responsible for the preparation of a particular book. In the instance at hand the author says in his Preface:

It is the thesis of this book that the major task of the principal is leadership in program change. This involves administration of people, not things. It is not possible to provide recipes or panaceas for this kind of administration, since human relationships are ever changing and complex. It is the hope of the author, nevertheless, that this volume will give some direction and offer some practical help in this crucial and difficult role of the secondary-school administrator.

The editor, John Guy Fowlkes, remarks that "the book is philosophical yet practical; . . . exploratory rather than definitive," and it is his belief and hope that "the volume should prove valuable both for those who are preparing for, and those who are experienced in, the practice of high-school administration."

Professor Faunce, it appears to this reviewer, has done at least a fair job in locating the high-school principal in the midst of people rather than of things. But the "things" are still there, and in about as great number as in books of the avowedly how-to-do-it school. The difference from the usual treatment is that Faunce does

not, with some exceptions, go very deeply into the hows and, in my judgment, does not go very profoundly into the whys either. "Philosophical yet practical," perhaps; but on the inadequate side in both cases.

It would take some courage on the part of both publisher and author to put out a book on secondary-school administration in which the solid core of the book was administrative theory, with illustrative or practical matters brought in only as examples or for teaching purposes; in which the author did not undertake to comment on every phase of the principal's life; and in which the reader could, with relative ease, see the development and proliferation of the theory. If the reviewer may be allowed an inference, it is his opinion that Faunce intended, when he started, to take this unconventional step but was beguiled, for reasons which will not even be guessed, into straying from his resolution. It's a pity, for it seems to me that he lost an excellent opportunity to take a relatively new conception of the role of the principal and work it through in thorough and scholarly fashion. Perhaps he was too easily influenced by his editor's remark about the book's being "exploratory rather than definitive." Undertaking to be definitive certainly puts one in an exposed position. There is, to be sure, nothing the matter with exploration in academic matters. But the effort to be definitive is a high, noble, and timely calling, especially when others have broken out the path.

It would be unnecessarily contentious to quarrel with the editor's hope, quoted previously, that this volume will be of value to anyone approaching, or already involved in, secondary-school administration. This, of course, is expecting a lot of any one book, as every editor would admit privately. But there are specific audiences for whom the book in question ought to be extremely informative. A citizens' group trying better to understand its high school would be helped mightily by reading it. (The style and vocabulary are simple and straightforward.) Everyone preparing for high-school teaching ought to have some idea of the responsibility and activities of his so-called "su-

perior officer," and for such this book could well be required reading. While I do not think the book is thorough or complete enough to serve as a basic textbook in a course in school administration, an instructor could wisely require its reading as an introduction to more intensive studies. (Because Faunce has some feelings on the use of textbooks, he might not want it used as a basic textbook anyway.) And if a superintendent were working with a high-school principal whose ideas he would like to modernize, and if he could get him to read a book, this would be a fine one to start with. The alert, experienced secondary-school man, however, will find here little that he has not met elsewhere. But this is no great fault; after all, even with great hope one cannot expect to reach every star in the firmament.

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MARGARET E. BENNETT, *Guidance in Groups: A Resource Book for Teachers, Counselors, and Administrators*. Supplemented by *A Human-Relations Program* by CELIA F. JOHNSON. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1955. Pp. xii+412. \$5.50.

Professional literature in the field of guidance now includes a substantial amount of source material relating to the counseling of individuals, personally and one at a time through interviews. One who seeks help regarding the group approach finds it necessary to search in a variety of educational fields, and will welcome another addition to the somewhat meager list of books which deal directly with guidance in groups.

Bennett has set for herself the task of analyzing both the theory and the practice of group guidance. Although the approach is through the group, the focus is constantly upon helping individuals to understand themselves and to achieve skill in self-direction.

The organization of the volume reveals the author's concern for perspective as well as technique. Early chapters deal with the place of group approaches in guidance and their sources. Then follow chapters on common problems in living, learning techniques in group guidance as related to orientation, interpersonal relationships, and vocational and educational guidance. The final chapter deals with

problems of personnel, namely, the workers in guidance.

In the chapter on "The Place of Group Guidance Approaches in Guidance," Bennett states:

In this book the term "group guidance" refers to any phase of a guidance or personnel program carried on with groups of individuals rather than between counselor and counselee or clinician and client in the face-to-face interview. It may include instruction in the classroom where the content is related to problems of self-appraisal, educational or vocational guidance, personal adjustment, and interpersonal relationships. It may embody a great variety of activities in the extra-curriculum that relate to these same areas. It includes many types of informal play or discussion groups, which often serve the double purpose of studying individuals in their interaction with others as well as helping them to work through certain difficulties and achieve new levels of adjustment [pp. 2-3].

Self-direction is generally recognized as the desired outcome of guidance programs. Here is the author's list of learnings which are essential for self-direction:

1. Learning to understand and face real problems.
2. Learning the techniques of analyzing problems.
3. Learning to use many sources of information in the study and solution of problems.
4. Learning to understand and direct inner drives to action.
5. Learning to understand and get along with others.
6. Learning to formulate long-range life plans.
7. Learning to establish a desirable balance between immediate and long-range goals.
8. Developing criteria for the choice of experiences.
9. Learning to move from knowledge and plans to action.
10. Learning to evaluate progress and reformulate goals and plans as the need is indicated [pp. 7-11].

Having set forth these learnings in the initial chapter, the author keeps them in mind throughout the volume, amplifying, illustrating, and relating them to the problems and needs of individuals. There is direct application at all educational levels, including, in the Appendix, the outline of a human-relations program for the primary-school child by Celia F. Johnson.

The mechanics of the book successfully meet a high standard. There are clear topical divisions and subheads, ample bibliography for each chapter, a complete index, helpful check lists, outlines, and a selection of visual aids.

The book can be recommended as a textbook or as supplementary reading in a course in

group guidance. Counselors will find it helpful in relating their work to the group experiences of their counselees. Administrators will find help in determining the place of group guidance in the total program of the school. Teachers, whether they have specific group-guidance assignments or not, will find in the book many suggestions for focusing attention on individual needs through regular classroom experiences.

FRANK S. ENDICOTT

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DORA S. LEWIS, MABEL GOODE BOWERS, and MARIETTA KETTUNEN, *Clothing Construction and Wardrobe Planning*. New York 11: Macmillan Co., 1955. Pp. x+534. \$4.00.

This volume is the fourth of a series of high-school textbooks ably edited by Dora S. Lewis, chairman of the Department of Home Economics, Hunter College. The other volumes deal with family living, family meals and hospitality, and housing and home management. With the large amount of subject matter provided and the many construction projects, ranging from the simplest to the very advanced, this book on clothing seems to offer adequate material for students in Grades IX-XII. Both Bowers and Kettunen are college instructors with a specialist's background in clothing and art, respectively.

The organization of the book should facilitate a wise sequence of teaching units. The first section on good grooming is followed by the construction of a beginner's blouse and skirt. Part II on art applied to clothing is integrated with the making of a dress. The more difficult problems of planning, budgeting, and buying appear later, along with the tailoring of a coat. In addition, the volume contains a section on care of clothing, 160 pages on sewing techniques (printed on green paper for ready reference), and a final chapter on careers in clothing and fashion that is directed largely to the college-bound student. At the close of each chapter there are a few suggestions for class and individual activities.

This book has definite strengths. The subject matter is sound and up to date, is presented concisely but in great detail, and is replete with practical ideas that could have been developed only out of long years of experience. The organization is sufficiently flexible for the book to be

used in a composite homemaking program extending over more than one year or in concentrated clothing study during two semesters. The numerous sketches, black-and-white photographs, and colored plates are youthful, appealing, and clarify points well. The whole format is attractive, and the book has already proved its popularity with high-school teachers.

A reviewer familiar with the three other books in this series inevitably makes comparisons that may not be quite fair to a textbook on clothing construction due to the very nature of the content. However, the other books do seem to offer a somewhat livelier style, a more thought-provoking approach to problems and activities. The goal, to encourage students "to make decisions and choices in the light of values that are important for personal and family well-being," appears to have come through more successfully in the earlier books. In this entire publication, aspects of marriage and the family are limited to five pages on family finances, one page to suiting clothes to family background, and six pages on selecting men's and children's clothing after a girl marries. Previous authors seemed to be a bit less conservative in their acceptance of the new, a little more imaginative in their ability to stimulate full student participation in thinking and choice-making.

The present volume is a good, thorough textbook. The previous books in the series have been exciting and delightful as well as useful.

LETITIA WALSH

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LESTER B. SANDS, *Audio-visual Procedures in Teaching*. New York 10: Ronald Press Co., 1956. Pp. viii+670. \$6.00.

Published at a time when members of the Department of Audio-Visual Instruction of the National Education Association are unable to agree upon a definition of the term "audio-visual instructional materials," this textbook encompasses the broadest view of the field to date. In the twenty-nine chapters and six appendixes of this book, Professor Sands treats each of the usual audio-visual devices plus such diversified subjects as "The Adequate School," "Duplicating," "Photography in Teaching," "Three-dimensional Pictures," and "Administration."

For the past twenty years each of a succession

of college textbooks on audio-visual education has added something to the province of this hybrid field of study. This book is no exception:

Audio-visual education embraces every kind of instructional aid and teaching method that appeals to sensory experience. It is not restricted to any precise category of materials, equipment, or procedure. Rather, it includes *all* the materials and procedures that answer the needs of young persons in school [p. 511].

As the scope of audio-visual education is expanded with each new volume, it becomes increasingly necessary for authors (and publishers) to devote less space to more material. The book under consideration here seems to be a product of this dilemma.

The first portion of this book deals with audio-visual methods in teaching, the contemporary school (its educational apparatus and its working conditions), and the school in relation to the community. This is followed by chapters devoted to such subjects as school journeys, models, learning through drama, chalkboards, display boards, and demonstrations. A chapter on "Duplicating" deals with ten kinds of duplication that, according to the author, schools have found to be both practicable and educationally valuable. These range from typed carbon copy and the rubber stamp to the printing press, lithography, silk screen, and the photostat.

Other chapters are concerned with maps, still pictures, opaque projectors, filmstrips, slides (one chapter deals with the 2-by-2 slide, while another chapter treats larger slides), motion pictures, disk and magnetic recordings (a chapter for each), radio and television, and screens and other accessories. The concluding chapter, "Concerning Resource Units," contains a sixteen-page prospectus of a third-grade social-studies unit on freight trains and freight which shows how audio-visual materials can be used as functional components of the teaching process.

This book concludes with more than ninety pages of appendixes, which provide a great amount of useful information about audio-visual associations, periodicals, and sources of free materials. Among these appendixes are a bibliography of selected references and a listing of sources of materials and equipment. Both of these separate listings refer to chapters in the book itself. It is regrettable that this material was not presented where it belongs and where it

could be conveniently used—at the end of each chapter.

Despite its title, this book gives far more attention to things than to procedures. In reading it, one is struck by its obvious lack of a firm foundation in a theory of learning or, indeed, in a consistent theory of audio-visual education. This may be a result of the author's attempt to cover the field of audio-visual devices in the broadest sense.

Several statements in the book strike this reviewer as heretical. In chapter ii, "The Adequate School," the author implies that motion pictures and other audio-visual materials will be used in the classroom. This is all very well. However, in his discussion of "The Complete Classroom" (chap. xxvii), he says: "Because of the difficulties and expense of darkening the classroom and for other reasons, many schools have prepared special audio-visual rooms for general projection" (p. 506). This, of course, is all too true, but it is not the best practice and this fact should be made quite clear rather than tacitly condoned, as it is here.

In several places the author points out that parent-teachers' associations and other community clubs have furnished, and should furnish, schools with major audio-visual equipment. "This is an admirable kind of assistance in a community that is not ready to finance a program" (p. 518). This idea should most certainly be qualified by a statement of some of its inherent dangers. If audio-visual materials are respectable and necessary teaching tools, why is it any more logical for a P.T.A. to buy them than it is to expect a P.T.A. to purchase books or fuel oil for a school?

In his chapter on "The Picture as Teacher," Professor Sands makes the incredible statement: "There is hardly any sort of picture that will not usefully fit into one educational context or another" (p. 240). This chapter contains no other criteria for the selection of effective pictures for teaching purposes. Indeed, many of the pictures used to illustrate this book look as if they had been selected by this almost-anything-will-do criterion. It is unfortunate that so many textbooks today are illustrated as an afterthought with insufficient time and budget. The results—small, dated, and dull—seem acceptable to many educators. Consequently textbook illustrations, such as those in the present volume, stand as monuments to mediocrity.

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CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY,
AND PRACTICE

- Adult Reading.* Prepared by the Yearbook Committee, DAVID H. CLIFT, chairman. Fifty-fifth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Chicago 37: Distributed by the University of Chicago Press, 1956. Pp. x+280+lxix. \$4.00 cloth. \$3.25 paper.
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WHO'S WHO FOR MAY

Authors of news notes and articles The news notes in this issue have been prepared by NELSON B. HENRY, professor of education at the University of Chicago and secretary of the National Society for the Study of Education. ROBERT J. HAVIGHURST, professor of education at the University of Chicago, discusses three major problems with which research on the nature of developmental tasks is concerned and describes the applications of the concept that have been made in the field of education. NELSON L. BOSSING, professor of education at the University of Minnesota, compares the status of the core curriculum in 1949 and 1956 and draws inferences on the out-

look for future core development. FRANK R. PETERS, instructor in education and an examiner at the University of Chicago, reports a study designed to discover whether non-high-school graduates who entered college or were employed in industry on the basis of their scores on the Tests of General Educational Development were successful in college or in their jobs. J. W. GETZELS, assistant professor of educational psychology at the University of Chicago, and KENNETH D. NORBERG, associate professor of education and co-ordinator of audio-visual services at Sacramento State College, Sacramento, California, present a list of selected references on educational psychology.

EDITOR'S NOTE

This issue of the *School Review*, the final number for the current academic year, is shorter than usual because the March number included an extra sixteen pages. Many useful articles are scheduled for publication in the coming year. Some of these are:

- "The Role of Mathematics in Core Program Development" by ELSIE J. ALBERTY
- "What Causes Teacher Turnover?" by W. W. CHARTERS, JR.

- "Adapting Home-Economics Instruction to the Social-Class Status of Students" by MARY LEE HURT
- "Restructuring the Interpersonal Relationships of a Junior High School Class" by LLOYD E. McCLEARY
- "Reading through Time" by HAROLD MORRILL
- "Measuring General Orientation toward Differing Curriculum Theories" by DAVID M. JACKSON
- "Is Teaching a Profession?" by GAIL M. INLOW

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